

# Is $\Omega_0$ a Good Cosmological Parameter?

H. V. Fagundes\* and F. E. Mendonça da Silveira

Instituto de Física Teórica, Universidade Estadual Paulista

01405-900 São Paulo, SP, Brazil

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We argue that the cosmological density parameter  $\Omega_0$  might be meaningless in a spatially infinite universe. Following Ellis and Schreiber's idea of a topologically nontrivial, lumpy small universe, we construct an illustrative model that would account for discrepancies in estimates of  $\Omega_0$  as the result of strong inhomogeneity, in the same scale as the universe's size. A contribution of peculiar gravity to the redshift of distant images, in the line of Sachs-Wolfe effect but without the linear approximation, is derived.

## I. Introduction

The Big Bang model of the universe, based on Friedmann-Lemaître-Robertson-Walker (FLRW) relativistic cosmologies, is at present widely accepted as to its grand design features; but there is much uncertainty with respect to its parameters. To begin with, does one discard the cosmological constant  $\Lambda$ ? While the correspondence principle makes  $\Lambda$  negligible<sup>[1]</sup>, there are FLRW models where its contribution to Einstein equations is of the same order as the present mass density  $\rho_0$  - see<sup>[2]</sup>, for example. Let us assume  $\Lambda = 0$  hereafter. Hubble's parameter is  $H_0 = 100h$  km s<sup>-1</sup> Mpc<sup>-1</sup>, with  $h$  undetermined within the range 0.3-1.0. Is  $\rho_0$  smaller or larger than, or equal to, the critical density  $\rho_{\text{crit}}$ ? Guth's inflationary scenario<sup>[3]</sup> requires  $\Omega_0 \equiv \rho_0/\rho_{\text{crit}} = 1$  if  $\Lambda = 0$ . Astrophysical estimates seem to depend on the studied region: for example, while the dynamics of a large gas cloud in the NGC 2300 group of galaxies points to  $\Omega_0 = 1$ <sup>[4]</sup>, the calculations of White et al.<sup>[5]</sup>, based on estimates of the Coma cluster's total mass, favor  $\Omega_0 = 0.16h^{-1/2}/(1 + 0.19h^{3/2}) \approx 0.2$ .

An operational definition of average density is non-trivial matter - see<sup>[6]</sup> and references therein. Also, if the universe (or our inflationary bubble) is much bigger than its presently observable part, then the FLRW assumption of a presently uniform  $\rho$  is unverifiable. It has been tacitly assumed that the high degree of smooth-

ness of the cosmic background radiation (CBR) implies present homogeneity at some "reasonable" scale. But there is no proof of this, for the details of "initial" conditions at recombination time and of evolution since then are very much uncertain. For all we know, the present average density could vary so wildly over cosmic distances that the parameter  $\Omega_0$ , determined from a number of accessible patches of spacetime, would be unrepresentative of our universe.

An alternative to this undesirable scenario is provided by Ellis and Schreiber's *lumpy small universes*<sup>[7]</sup>. Here we study such a model, with Einstein-de Sitter (EdS) metric, whose spatial section  $S(t)$  has the topology of a 3-torus  $T^3$ ;  $S(t)$  is constructed from a cube of side  $L = 120h^{-1}$  Mpc, which is about Ellis & Schreiber's minimal value for a small universe; this cube, or basic cell, has opposite faces identified in order to represent  $T^3$ . The lumpiness refers to perturbations of the metric leading to strong density fluctuations on a scale of the same order as  $L$ . Since the basic cell is repeated in the form of multiple images of the sources in  $S(t)$ , up to the observations' horizon, the model predicts an apparent homogeneity on the scale of a few cells' volume while leaving room for large inhomogeneity on the scale of galaxy superclusters.

This work does not aim at detailed realism. Its

\*e-mail: helio@ift.unesp.br

aim is rather to point out a possibility that has been widely ignored, namely that the average density may vary strongly in the scale of hundreds of megaparsecs. The problem is attacked in an simplified way, through numerical integration of a perturbed Einstein-de Sitter model.

## II. A Perturbed small universe

This model is similar to a previous one<sup>[8]</sup> (henceforth referred to as FK) in many aspects. The perturbed EdS metric has the form

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - a^2(t, x)dx^2 - b^2(t, x)(dy^2 + dz^2),$$

with the periodicities  $a(t, x + L) = a(t, x)$ ,  $b(t + L, x) = b(t, x)$ , which are interpreted in the sense of a compact universe of topology  $T^3$ . Our calculational units are  $c = G = t_0 = 1$ , where  $G =$  Newton's constant and  $t_0 = 2/3H_0$  is the present age of the universe in EdS model;  $L = 0.06$  in these units. There is yet no reliable evidence for such a model, but recently Biesiada<sup>[9]</sup> proposed an interpretation of the distribution of gamma-ray bursts in terms of a toroidal universe with  $L = 300$  Mpc. On the other hand, COBE's result on the CBR seems to imply much bigger lower bounds on  $L$  - see, for example<sup>[10]</sup>. But present day cosmology is so full of tentative results, that we need not abandon the idea of small universes on its first confrontation with observational analyses. Besides, some properties of small universes are linked to their compact topology rather than to their smallness<sup>[7]</sup>, and this paper's scheme may probably be reformulated in terms of this compactness, so as to be reconciled with those lower bounds.

For simplicity we restrict the spatial dependence of  $a$  and  $b$  to the  $x$  variable. We assume a velocity field  $v = (v, 0, 0)$ , discarding  $O(v^2)$  terms. Einstein's constraint equations (cf. [11]) are then

$$\frac{2\dot{a}\dot{b}}{ab} + \frac{\dot{b}^2}{b^2} - \frac{2b''}{a^2b} - \frac{b'^2}{a^2b^2} + \frac{2a'b'}{a^3b} = 8\pi\rho,$$

$$\frac{2\dot{b}'}{a^2b} - \frac{2\dot{a}b'}{a^3b} = 8\pi\rho v,$$

where a dot means  $\partial/\partial t$ , a prime  $\partial/\partial x$ . The dynamical equations produce the system

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{a} &= f \\ b &= g \\ f &= \frac{ag^2}{2b^2} - \frac{fg}{b} + \frac{b'^2}{2ab^2} + \frac{b''}{ab} + \frac{a'b'}{a^2b} \\ g &= -\frac{g^2}{2b} + \frac{b'^2}{2a^2b}, \end{aligned}$$

which was integrated numerically, as in FK, except that the evolution proceeded from  $t = 0.1$  to 1.0, and two-term expansions were used, with  $\delta t = 5 \times 10^{-5}$ . The initial conditions are

$$\begin{aligned} a(0.1, x) &= 0.1^{2/3}(1 + \alpha \sin qx), \\ b(0.1, x) &= 0.1^{2/3} \\ \dot{a}(0.1, x) &= (2/3) \times 0.1^{-1/3}, \\ \dot{b}(0.1, x) &= (2/3) \times 0.1^{-1/3}(1 + \beta \sin qx), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\alpha = 10^{-4}$ ,  $\beta = 4 \times 10^{-5}$ , and  $q = 2\pi/L$ . These conditions were chosen to serve the model's illustrative purpose; they are not strictly realistic, except for their EdS limit if  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  vanish. On the other hand, they might well be compatible with analyses of COBE's map<sup>[12]</sup> of the CBR, which would have  $\alpha$  and  $\beta \simeq 10^{-5}$  at the epoch of recombination. We did not take  $t_{rec} \simeq 10^{-5}$  as initial time because it would require much refinement of the integration process, beyond the scope of this work. Note that our treatment is not perturbative: the nonlinear equations are solved directly from perturbed initial conditions.

The numerical results in the range  $t = 0.5 - 1.0$  were fitted to the following approximations:

$$a_{rel}(t, x) = t^{-2/3}a(t, x) \simeq 1 - 0.108t^{1.53}\sin qx, \quad (1)$$

$$b_{rel}(t, x) = t^{-2/3}b(t, x) \simeq 1, \quad (2)$$

$$\rho_{rel}(t, x) = 6\pi t^2\rho(t, x) \simeq A(t) + B_1 \sin qx + A_2(t) \cos 2qx, \quad (3)$$

$$v(t, x) \simeq 4.2 \times 10^{-4}t^{-1.34}\cos qx, \quad (4)$$

where  $A(t) = 1 + 0.014t^{2.31}$ ,  $B_1(t) = 0.261t^{0.75}$ , and  $A_2(t) = -0.022t^{2.12}$ . Note that  $\rho_{rel}(t, x)$  has a maximum of 1.297 and a minimum of 0.775 at  $t = 1.0$ , separated by  $x = L/2 = 60h^{-1}$  Mpc. In principle we could have started with, say, an  $\Omega_0 = 0.6$  universe (but not so small; cf.<sup>[13]</sup> and disturb it to obtain a fluctuation  $\delta\rho_0/\rho_{crit} = 50.4$ . Qualitatively this would mimic the results of Mulchaey et al.<sup>[4]</sup> mentioned above.

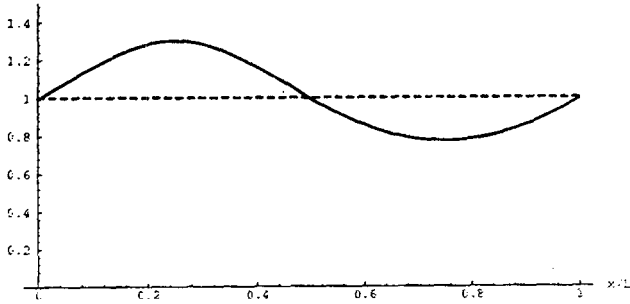


Figure 1. The relative density  $\omega_0(x/L)$ ,  $L = 120h^{-1}$  Mpc.

Figure 1 is a plot of  $\rho_{rel}(1, x)$ , which we may call  $\omega_0(x)$  as a variable counterpart of  $\Omega_0$ . These results imply a reformulation of the relation between distance and Hubble's flow velocity, which will not be discussed here. (After this work was completed a preprint appeared<sup>[14]</sup>,

proposing that the "local universe" is a bubble of smaller density than the larger scale universe, with consequences to Hubble's law. In our terminology, they are saying that the  $\omega_0(0)$  is substantially lower than the average  $\Omega_0$ .)

### III. The perturbed redshifts

Now we calculate the influence of the above perturbations on the redshifts. For simplicity both the observer and the source are placed on the  $x$  axis, with the former at  $x = 0$ ; the latter is at  $x = x_e$ , and (potentially) has repeated images at  $x = x_e = x_s + nL$ , where  $n$  is an integer and  $|x_e| < 0.62 \cong 10L$  (to make lookback time  $\leq 0.5$ ). Let the source emit a pulse of wavelength  $\lambda_e$ , during the time interval  $t_e$  to  $t_e + \Delta$ , through such a path as to make an image at  $x$ . This image may be treated as if it were a source at  $x_e$ , with peculiar velocity  $v_e = v(t_e, x_e)$ , for the apparent light path results from "unwinding" the real path; so it moves from  $x_e$  to  $x_e + \lambda_e v_e$  in the period  $\Delta$ . This pulse is observed by us in the interval  $1$  to  $1 + \lambda_0$ , while Earth moves from  $0$  to  $\lambda_0 v_0$ ,  $v_0 = v(1, 0) = 0.00042$ . If  $t(x)$  is the light path from  $(t_e, x_e)$  to  $(1, 0)$ , we get

$$\int_{t_e + \lambda_e}^{1 + \lambda_0} t^{-2/3} dt - \int_{t_e}^1 t^{-2/3} dt = \int_{\lambda_0 v_0}^{x_e + \lambda_e v_e} a_{rel}[t(x), x] dx - \int_0^{x_e} a_{rel}[t(x), x] dx,$$

$$\lambda_0 - t_e^{-2/3} \lambda_e = \int_0^{x_e} (\partial a_{rel} / \partial t)[t(x), x] \lambda(x) dx + a_{rel}(t_e, x_e) \lambda_e v_e - \lambda_0 v_0.$$

Approximating the path by its EdS equation,  $t(x) = (1 - x/3)^3$  (thus possibly neglecting a significant correction to the redshift and Hubble's law; it will be the subject of further study), and substituting  $\lambda_0/\lambda_e = 1 + Z$ ,  $t_e^{-2/3} = 1 + Z_{EdS}$ ,  $\lambda(x) = \lambda_e t_e^{-2/3} t(x)^{2/3}$ , and Eqs. (1) and (4) in the above expression, we get

$$\delta Z \equiv Z - Z_{EdS} = (1 + Z_{EdS})(P + v + Z_0), \quad (5)$$

where

$$P = -0.165 \int_0^{x_e} (1 - x/3)^3 \sin qx \, dx,$$

$$V = (av)(t_e, x_e) = 0.00042t_e^{-0.67} \cos qx_e(1 - 0.108t_e^{1.53} \sin qx_e),$$

and  $Z_0 = -v_0$  is a Doppler shift due to the observer's motion. One of Harrison's<sup>[19]</sup> formulas for composite redshifts would give  $1+z = (1+z_R)(1+z_0+z_C+z_{grav})$ . Since  $z_R \cong Z_{EdS}$ , this expression agrees with Eq. (5) if we identify  $z_C$  with our "streaming velocity"  $V$ , and the peculiar gravity shift  $z_{grav}$  with  $P$ , as already done in FK.  $P$  can be said to generalize the Sachs-Wolfe effect<sup>[15]</sup> in our limited context, since the present treatment is not a linear approximation.

Fig. 2 is a plot of  $V$ ,  $P$ , and  $\delta Z$  as functions of  $x_e/L$ .

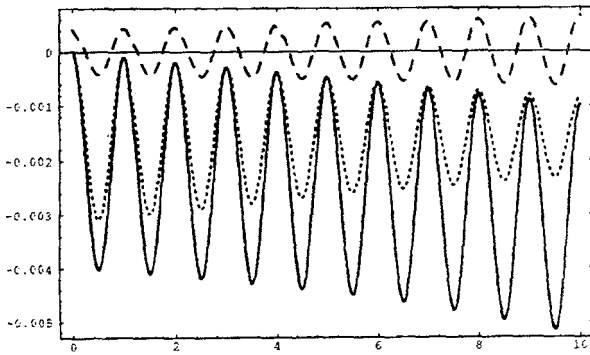


Figure 2. Plots of  $V$  (dashed),  $P$  (dotted), and  $\delta Z$  (full), for an image at position  $X$  in units of  $L = 120 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}$ .

#### IV. Final remarks

In our small universe the scale of density inhomogeneities is about as large as it can be, that is, of the same order as the universe's size. This cell repeats itself in the form of multiple images, thus partly mimicking the infinity of EdS model. But the pattern of matter distribution in observable space is determined by the evolution of the basic cell's pattern.  $\Omega_0$  is now a density average over the real world of sources (i.e., over the basic cell). It remains useful in the present context, as we proceeded by perturbation of an FLRW universe, with one of its allowed topologies; cf.[16]. Ellis & Schreiber<sup>[7]</sup> pose the question of whether this is usually the case for lumpy small universes. A conjecture by Thurston<sup>[17]</sup> points to an answer by reversing the question: given a closed space with an inhomogeneous

metric, the latter can be smoothed out into a piecewise homogeneous metric. (See also the one-but-last paragraph in<sup>[18]</sup>.) The strong density contrast gives rise to a measurable contribution of peculiar gravity to the redshift. This shift is ignored by Harrison<sup>[19]</sup> as negligible, and apparently so also in studies of large scale structures - see the last paragraph in<sup>[8]</sup> - where it may have been misinterpreted as part of the velocity field. So it seems desirable to investigate it in more realistic simulations.

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