

## Cosmology exercise session – Solutions - IDPASC 2023

1. Suppose we have two observers  $A$  and  $B$  separated by coordinate distance  $r_{AB}$  (i.e. the comoving distance).  $A$  emits a light pulse at time  $t_{\text{emit}}$  which reaches  $B$  at time  $t_{\text{obs}}$ . Now we know light rays are null, hence they satisfy  $ds^2 = 0$  along the path of a photon. It follows that

$$\int_{t_{\text{emit}}}^{t_{\text{obs}}} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_0^{r_{AB}} \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - Kr^2}}.$$

Now imagine  $A$  emits a second pulse at time  $t_{\text{emit}} + \delta t_{\text{emit}}$  which arrives at  $B$  at time  $t_{\text{obs}} + \delta t_{\text{obs}}$ . It travels the same comoving distance hence we have

$$\int_{t_{\text{emit}} + \delta t_{\text{emit}}}^{t_{\text{obs}} + \delta t_{\text{obs}}} \frac{dt}{a(t)} = \int_0^{r_{AB}} \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - Kr^2}} = \int_{t_{\text{emit}}}^{t_{\text{obs}}} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$

Hence it follows that for the case where the scale factor does not evolve much during the period between the first and second pulse being emitted (such as a wavelength of light) then

$$\frac{\delta t_{\text{obs}}}{a(t_{\text{obs}})} = \frac{\delta t_{\text{emit}}}{a(t_{\text{emit}})}$$

In particular considering the case where the time difference corresponds to say one wavelength, we can say that light of freq  $\nu_{\text{emit}}$  at  $A$  will be detected with frequency  $\nu_{\text{obs}}$  at  $B$  where

$$\frac{\nu_{\text{obs}}}{\nu_{\text{emit}}} = \frac{\delta t_{\text{emit}}}{\delta t_{\text{obs}}} = \frac{a(t_{\text{emit}})}{a(t_{\text{obs}})}$$

Thus the light received by  $B$  is redshifted

$$1 + z = \frac{a(t_{\text{obs}})}{a(t_{\text{emit}})}, \quad z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{obs}} - \lambda_{\text{emit}}}{\lambda_{\text{emit}}} = \frac{\nu_{\text{emit}} - \nu_{\text{obs}}}{\nu_{\text{obs}}}.$$

2.

- a. We have that redshift is equal to

$$z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{obs}} - \lambda_{\text{em}}}{\lambda_{\text{em}}} = \frac{8.50969 - 1.21567}{1.21567} = 6 \tag{1}$$

corresponding to scale factor  $a = 1/7 \approx 0.142857$ .

- b. We have that  $H = H_0/a^{3/2} = H_0(1+z)^{3/2}$  and  $H_0 = 70 \text{ km/s/Mpc} = 3.336 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ .

- i. The comoving distance is

$$\begin{aligned} d_{\text{com}} &= \int_0^z \frac{dz}{H} = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_0^6 (1+z)^{-3/2} dz \approx \frac{1.24407}{H_0} \\ &\approx \frac{1.24407}{3.336 \times 0.7 \times 10^{-4}} \text{ Mpc} \approx 5.327 \text{ Gpc} \approx 1.6434 \times 10^{26} \text{ m} \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

– **ii.** The angular-diameter distance of the object is

$$d_A = \frac{d_{com}}{1+z} = \frac{1}{7}d_{com} \approx 761Mpc \approx 2.3 \times 10^{25}m \quad (3)$$

– **iii.** The luminosity distance of the object is

$$d_L = \frac{d_{com}}{1+z} = (1+z)^2 d_A = 7d_{com} \approx 37.2Gpc \approx 1.15 \times 10^{27}m \quad (4)$$

• **c.** Here,  $H = H_0 \sqrt{0.3(1+z)^3 + 0.7}$ .

– **i.** The comoving distance is

$$d_{com} = \int_0^z \frac{dz}{H} = \frac{1}{H_0} \int_0^6 \frac{1}{\sqrt{0.3(1+z)^3 + 0.7}} dz \approx \frac{1.92561}{H_0} = 1.17172 d_{com}^{\Omega_\Lambda=0} \\ \approx 1.17172 \times 5.327Gpc \approx 8.25Gpc \approx 2.5 \times 10^{26}m \quad (5)$$

– **ii.** The angular-diameter distance of the object is

$$d_A = 1.17172 d_A^{\Omega_\Lambda=0} \sim 891Mpc = 2.69 \times 10^{25}m \quad (6)$$

– **iii.** The luminosity distance of the object is

$$d_L = 1.17172 d_L^{\Omega_\Lambda=0} = 43.5879Gpc \approx 2.3 \times 1.3410^{27}m \quad (7)$$

**3a.** We find the angular diameter distance as

$$d_A = a(t_{em})r \quad (8)$$

where  $a_{em} = a(t_{em})$  is the scale factor at emission. Meanwhile the luminosity distance for a source of intrinsic luminosity  $L_s$  is

$$d_L = \sqrt{\frac{L_s}{4\pi\mathcal{F}}} \quad (9)$$

where  $\mathcal{F}$  is the observed flux. What we are after is the luminosity distance in an expanding Universe compared to the one in a static Universe. The latter, would be equal to  $r_{com}$ . Now, luminosity is Energy per unit time, that is  $\delta E/\delta t$ . We saw in the lectures that energy scales as  $E_{em} = E_{obs}/a(t_{em})$  and we also saw from exercise 1 that  $\delta t_{em} = a(t_{em})\delta t_{obs}$  (assuming  $a = 1$  today). So by the time light comes to us as observers, the luminosity of the source would appear to be

$$L_{obs} = L_s a^2(t_{em}) \quad (10)$$

which we may associate with the luminosity distance in case of a static Universe. So

$$d_L = \sqrt{\frac{L_s}{4\pi\mathcal{F}}} = \frac{1}{a} \sqrt{\frac{L_{obs}}{4\pi\mathcal{F}}} \quad (11)$$

$$= \frac{r_{com}}{a} \quad (12)$$

Eliminating  $r_{com}$  we then find the desired relation

$$d_L = \frac{d_A}{a^2} = d_A(1+z)^2 \quad (13)$$

**3b.** For matter domination  $H = H_0(1+z)^{3/2}$ . Hence,

$$d_A = \frac{1}{H_0} \frac{1}{1+z} \int_0^z (1+z')^{3/2} dz' \quad (14)$$

$$= \frac{2}{H_0(1+z)} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+z}} \right) \quad (15)$$

**3c.** Setting to zero the derivative of the equation in 3b gives that the angular diameter distance in a purely matter dominated universe reaches a maximum at redshift  $z = 5/4$ .

**3d.** The Universe is expanding.

**4.** In the following three questions we set  $c = 1$  for convenience. To obtain the fluid equation, first differentiate the Friedmann equation to yield

$$\frac{2\dot{a}\ddot{a}}{a^2} - \frac{2\dot{a}^3}{a^3} = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\dot{\rho} + \frac{2\kappa\dot{a}}{a^3}.$$

Rearrange to obtain

$$\frac{2\dot{a}}{a} \left( \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} - \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} - \frac{\kappa}{a^2} \right) = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\dot{\rho} \quad (16)$$

Recall the acceleration (17) and Friedmann (18) equations

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3}(\rho + 3p) \quad (17)$$

$$\frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho - \frac{\kappa}{a^2} \quad (18)$$

Sub into (16) to obtain

$$\frac{2\dot{a}}{a} \left( -\frac{4\pi G}{3}(\rho + 3p) - \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho \right) = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\dot{\rho}$$

Finally simplify to obtain the required result

$$\dot{\rho} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}(\rho + p) = 0. \quad (19)$$

**5.** In terms of conformal time  $\eta$ , we have

$$\frac{da}{dt} = \frac{da}{d\eta} \frac{d\eta}{dt} = \frac{a'}{a} \quad (20)$$

where  $a' \equiv \frac{da}{d\eta}$  and  $\frac{d\eta}{dt} = \frac{1}{a}$ . Similarly we have

$$\ddot{a} = \frac{d(\dot{a})}{dt} = \frac{d(\dot{a})}{d\eta} \frac{d\eta}{dt} = \frac{a''}{a^2} - \frac{a'^2}{a^3}. \quad (21)$$

For the acceleration equation, sub (21) into (17) and use (20) and (18) to eliminate the  $\frac{a'^2}{a^4}$  term. The answer then follows:

$$a'' = \frac{4\pi G}{3}(\rho - 3p)a^3 - \kappa a \quad (22)$$

For the Friedmann equation, simply sub (20) into (18) and the answer pops out:

$$a'^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho a^4 - \kappa a^2 \quad (23)$$

**6.** Before  $e^+e^-$  annihilation, the relevant radiation species are photons (2 dof), 3 neutrino flavous (1 dof each), 3 anti-neutrino flavous (1 dof each), positrons (2 dof each) and electrons (2 dof each), for a total of 10 fermionic and 2 bosonic dof. Hence, the entropy density before  $s_b$  is

$$s_b = \frac{4}{3} \sum_I \frac{\rho_I}{T_I} = \frac{4}{3} \frac{\pi^2}{30} \left( 2 + \frac{7}{8} * 10 \right) T_\nu^3 \quad (24)$$

$$= \frac{43\pi^2}{90} T_\nu^3 \quad (25)$$

where  $I$  runs over all the species above and where all species have the same temperature, which we choose to be the neutrino temperature  $T_\nu$ .

After the annihilation, the relevant radiation species are photons (2 dof), 3 neutrino flavous (1 dof each) and 3 anti-neutrino flavous (1 dof each), for a total of 6 fermionic and 2 bosonic dof. But, now while the neutrino temperature is unchanged by the annihilation, and remains at  $T_\nu$ , the photon thermal bath is heated by the annihilation so that the new photon temperature is  $T_\gamma$ .

Hence, the entropy density after  $s_a$  is

$$s_a = \frac{4}{3} \sum_I \frac{\rho_I}{T_I} = \frac{4}{3} \frac{\pi^2}{30} \left( 2T_\gamma^3 + \frac{7}{8} * 6 T_\nu^3 \right) \quad (26)$$

$$= \frac{4\pi^2}{90} \left[ 2 \left( \frac{T_\gamma}{T_\nu} \right)^3 + \frac{21}{4} \right] T_\nu^3 \quad (27)$$

Since, the entropy is conserved, and since the annihilation is assumed to be instantaneous in redshift, then  $S_b = S_a$ , leading to

$$\frac{43}{4} = 2 \left( \frac{T_\gamma}{T_\nu} \right)^3 + \frac{21}{4} \quad (28)$$

hence,

$$\left( \frac{T_\gamma}{T_\nu} \right)^3 = \frac{11}{4} \quad (29)$$

hence

$$T_\nu = \left( \frac{4}{11} \right)^{1/3} T_\gamma \quad (30)$$

7. At the beginning massive neutrinos were relativistic ( $T_\nu \gg m$ ), hence, for one neutrino/anti-neutrino flavour

$$n_\nu = \frac{3}{4} \frac{2\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} T_\nu^3 \quad (31)$$

where the factor of 3/4 is because neutrinos are fermions, and the 2 dof count one helicity of one neutrino and one helicity of the antineutrino. Now we have seen that  $T_\nu = \left(\frac{4}{11}\right)^{1/3} T_\gamma$ , hence,

$$n_\nu = \frac{3}{11} \frac{2\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} T_\gamma^3 \quad (32)$$

$$= \frac{3}{11} n_\gamma \quad (33)$$

When  $T \sim m$  and hence forth, neutrinos are non-relativistic so that

$$\rho_\nu = m_\nu n_\nu \quad (34)$$

At that point  $n_\nu = \frac{3}{11} n_\gamma$  is still valid so that

$$\rho_\nu = \frac{3}{11} m_\nu \frac{2\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} T_\gamma^3 \quad (35)$$

$$= m_\nu \frac{6\zeta(3)}{11\pi^2} T_{0\gamma}^3 \frac{1}{a^3} \quad (36)$$

$$= \frac{\rho_{0\nu}}{a^3} \quad (37)$$

where

$$\rho_{0\nu} = m_\nu \frac{6\zeta(3)}{11\pi^2} T_{0\gamma}^3 \quad (38)$$

is the density of one flavour of massive neutrinos today. But  $\Omega_\nu = \rho_{0\nu}/\rho_{crit}$ . Plugging in the numbers we have that  $\rho_{crit} = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G}$  with  $H_0 = 2.137h \times 10^{-42} GeV$  and  $G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} m^3 Kg^{-1} s^{-2} = 6.7 \times 10^{-39} GeV^{-2}$ , leading to  $\rho_{crit} = 8.13h^2 \times 10^{-11} eV^4$ . Meanwhile  $T_{0\gamma} \approx 2.72K = 2.34 \times 10^{-13} GeV$  so that we find

$$\Omega_{0\nu} \approx \frac{m_\nu}{94h^2 eV} \quad (39)$$

per neutrino flavour.

9. We start from the equation in the problem set. For scales outside the Jeans length, we can ignore the term  $k^2 c_s^2 \delta$  and the equation becomes

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} - 4\pi G\bar{\rho}\delta = 0 \quad (40)$$

Now consider the term  $4\pi G\bar{\rho}\delta$ . The density  $\bar{\rho}$  is the energy density of matter. We re-express it in terms of the total energy density  $\bar{\rho}_T$  to get

$$4\pi G\bar{\rho} = 4\pi G\Omega_m\bar{\rho}_T = \frac{3}{2}\Omega_m H^2 \quad (41)$$

Now for both curvature and cosmological constant domination  $\Omega_m$  is tiny and so we may neglect the term  $\frac{3}{2}\Omega_m H^2$  and the equation to be solved becomes

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} = 0 \quad (42)$$

Now consider the two cases

**9.a** Curvature domination. For curvature domination we have the Friedmann equation

$$3H^2 = -\frac{3K}{a^2} \quad (43)$$

which is only valid for negative curvature  $K < 0$ . The equation simplifies to

$$\dot{a}^2 = -K \quad (44)$$

which has solution

$$a = \sqrt{|K|}t \quad (45)$$

hence the Hubble parameter evolves as

$$H = \frac{1}{t} \quad (46)$$

Thus the equation for  $\delta$  becomes

$$\ddot{\delta} + \frac{2}{t}\dot{\delta} = 0 \quad (47)$$

We set  $A = \dot{\delta}$  to get

$$\dot{A} = -\frac{2}{t}A \quad (48)$$

which has solution

$$A = \left(\frac{t_0}{t}\right)^2 \quad (49)$$

where  $t_0$  is an integration constant. Thus replacing  $A$  with  $\dot{\delta}$  we get

$$\dot{\delta} = \left(\frac{t_0}{t}\right)^2 \quad (50)$$

which integrates to

$$\delta = \delta_0 - \frac{t_0^2}{t} \quad (51)$$

**9.b** Cosmological constant domination. In this case the Hubble parameter is constant  $H = H_0$  and the equation for  $\delta$  becomes

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H_0\dot{\delta} = 0 \quad (52)$$

We set  $A = \dot{\delta}$  to get

$$\dot{A} = -2H_0A \quad (53)$$

which has solution

$$A = A_0 e^{-2H_0 t} \quad (54)$$

where  $A_0$  is an integration constant. Thus replacing  $A$  with  $\dot{\delta}$  we get

$$\dot{\delta} = A_0 e^{-2H_0 t} \quad (55)$$

which integrates to

$$\delta = \delta_0 - \frac{A_0}{2H_0} e^{-2H_0 t} \quad (56)$$

where  $\delta_0$  is a 2nd integration constant. This is the general solution.

**9.c** We see that for both curvature and cosmological constant domination, the solution for the density contrast is equal to a constant plus a decaying mode. Thus in both cases, the density contrast stops

growing, thus structure formation stops if the Universe enters a curvature or a cosmological constant period.

**10.a** The inverse metric tensor  $g^{\mu\nu}$  will be a perturbation on the background inverse metric tensor  $\bar{g}^{\mu\nu}$  which is

$$\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{a^2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & \gamma^{ij} \end{pmatrix} \quad (57)$$

where  $\gamma^{ik}\gamma_{kj} = \delta^i_j$ . Thus for the total  $g^{\mu\nu}$  we should have

$$g^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{a^2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 + h^{00} & 0 \\ 0 & \gamma^{ij} + h^{ij} \end{pmatrix} \quad (58)$$

mutiplying  $g^{\mu\nu}$  with  $g_{\mu\nu}$  we get

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^\mu_\nu = g^{\mu\rho}g_{\rho\nu} &= \frac{1}{a^2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 + h^{00} & 0 \\ 0 & \gamma^{ik} + h^{ik} \end{pmatrix} \times a^2 \begin{pmatrix} -(1 + 2\Psi) & 0 \\ 0 & (1 - 2\Phi)\gamma_{kj} + h_{kj}^{(T)} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} -1 + h^{00} & 0 \\ 0 & \gamma^{ik} + h^{ik} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -(1 + 2\Psi) & 0 \\ 0 & (1 - 2\Phi)\gamma_{kj} + h_{kj}^{(T)} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 + 2\Psi - h^{00} & 0 \\ 0 & [\gamma^{ik} + h^{ik}] [(1 - 2\Phi)\gamma_{kj} + h_{kj}^{(T)}] \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 + 2\Psi - h^{00} & 0 \\ 0 & (1 - 2\Phi)\gamma^{ik}\gamma_{kj} + \gamma^{ik}h_{kj}^{(T)} + h^{ik}\gamma_{kj} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (59)$$

Now we can raise the indices on  $h_{ij}^{(T)}$  using the background spatial metric tensor  $\gamma_{ij}$ . So we write  $h_{kj}^{(T)} = \gamma_{kp}\gamma_{jq}h^{(T)pq}$ . We further multiply with  $\gamma^{ik}$  as it appears in the matrix above to get  $\gamma^{ik}h_{kj}^{(T)} = \gamma^{ik}\gamma_{kp}\gamma_{jq}h^{(T)pq} = \delta^i_p\gamma_{jq}h^{(T)pq} = \gamma_{kj}h^{(T)ik}$ . So substituting this into the matrix we get

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^\mu_\nu = g^{\mu\rho}g_{\rho\nu} &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 + 2\Psi - h^{00} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta^i_j - 2\Phi\gamma^{ik}\gamma_{kj} + \gamma_{kj}h^{(T)ik} + h^{ik}\gamma_{kj} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \delta^i_j \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (60)$$

This means that we must have

$$h^{00} = 2\Psi \quad (61)$$

and

$$h^{ij} = 2\Phi\gamma^{ij} - h^{(T)ij} \quad (62)$$

so that the inverst metric tensor is

$$g^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{a^2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 + 2\Psi & 0 \\ 0 & (1 + 2\Phi)\gamma^{ij} - h^{(T)ij} \end{pmatrix} \quad (63)$$

**10.b** We need to calculate  $u_\mu u_\nu g^{\mu\nu}$ . First let's start from the background. Since the background is homogeneous and isotropic, the background 3-velocity must be zero. So  $\bar{u} = (\bar{u}_0, \vec{0})$ . Now we need to find  $\bar{u}_0$ . We have

$$-1 = \bar{u}_\mu \bar{u}_\nu \bar{g}^{\mu\nu} = (\bar{u}_0)^2 \bar{g}^{00} = -\frac{1}{a^2} (\bar{u}_0)^2 \quad (64)$$

so we solve for  $\bar{u}_0$  to get

$$\bar{u}_0 = \pm a \quad (65)$$

We choose the + solution i.e.  $\bar{u}_0 = a$ . This is purely conventional. Now let us consider the perturbations. We write  $u_\mu = \bar{u}_\mu + \delta u_\mu$ . We need to find  $\delta u_0$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} -1 &= u_\mu u_\nu g^{\mu\nu} \\ &= (\bar{u}_\mu + \delta u_\mu)(\bar{u}_\nu + \delta u_\nu)(\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} + \delta g^{\mu\nu}) \\ &= (\bar{u}_\mu + \delta u_\mu)(\bar{u}_\nu + \delta u_\nu)\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} + (\bar{u}_\mu + \delta u_\mu)(\bar{u}_\nu + \delta u_\nu)\delta g^{\mu\nu} \\ &= (\bar{u}_\mu + \delta u_\mu)\bar{u}_\nu\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} + (\bar{u}_\mu + \delta u_\mu)\delta u_\nu\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} + \bar{u}_\mu\bar{u}_\nu\delta g^{\mu\nu} \\ &= \bar{u}_\mu\bar{u}_\nu\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} + \delta u_\mu\bar{u}_\nu\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} + \bar{u}_\mu\delta u_\nu\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} + \bar{u}_\mu\bar{u}_\nu\delta g^{\mu\nu} \end{aligned} \quad (66)$$

Since  $\bar{u}_\mu\bar{u}_\nu\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} = -1$  we find that

$$0 = \delta u_\mu\bar{u}_\nu\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} + \bar{u}_\mu\delta u_\nu\bar{g}^{\mu\nu} + \bar{u}_\mu\bar{u}_\nu\delta g^{\mu\nu} \quad (67)$$

Then since  $\bar{u}_\mu = (a, \vec{0})$  the above expression gives

$$0 = \delta u_\mu\bar{u}_0\bar{g}^{\mu 0} + \bar{u}_0\delta u_\nu\bar{g}^{0\nu} + \bar{u}_0\bar{u}_0\delta g^{00} \quad (68)$$

$$= a\delta u_\mu\bar{g}^{\mu 0} + a\delta u_\nu\bar{g}^{0\nu} + \Psi \quad (69)$$

But  $\bar{g}^{\mu 0}$  is non-zero only for  $\mu = 0$  in which case  $\bar{g}^{00} = -\frac{1}{a^2}$ . Therefore the above expression gives

$$0 = -\frac{2}{a}\delta u_0 + 2\Psi \quad (70)$$

and solving for  $\delta u_0$  we get

$$\delta u_0 = a\Psi \quad (71)$$

**10.c** On super-horizon scales we set  $k^2 = 0$  so that the equation becomes

$$h^{(T)''} + 2\mathcal{H}h^{(T)'} = 0 \quad (72)$$

The trivial solution is  $h^{(T)} = \text{const}$ . We need the non-trivial solution. Let  $A = h^{(T)'}$ . Then

$$A' + 2\frac{a'}{a}A = 0 \quad (73)$$

where we have used  $\mathcal{H} = \frac{a'}{a}$ . Therefore the solution is

$$A = \frac{A_0}{a^2} \quad (74)$$

so that the general solution is

$$h^{(T)} = h_0^{(T)} + A_0 \int \frac{d\eta}{a^2} \quad (75)$$

where  $h_0^{(T)}$  is a constant (the trivial solution). We see that the non-trivial solution proportional to  $A_0$  is decaying so we can ignore it. Therefore, the tensor mode on super-horizon scales stays constant in time.

On sub-horizon scales the  $k^2$  term becomes important. The equation to be solved is that of a damped harmonic oscillator. Thus, we expect the solution to be oscillatory with a decaying amplitude.