Cosmological models of the Universe with reversal of time's arrow

A. D. Sakharov

Lebedeu Physical Institute, Academy of Sciences of the USSR

Cosmological models of the Universe with reversal of time's arrow are considered. Formulations are given of the hypothesis of cosmological CPT symmetry suggested earlier by the writer, and of the hypothesis of an open model with many sheets, with negative spatial curvature, and with possible violation of CPT symmetry by an invariant combined charge. The statistical paradox of reversibility is discussed for these models. The small dimensionless parameter $\lambda^2$, which characterizes the mean spatial curvature of the Universe, is explained as the result of the evolution of the Universe through many successive cycles of expansion and contraction.

PACS numbers: 98.80.Bp

The equations of motion of classical mechanics and of nonrelativistic quantum mechanics admit time reversal; so also do the equations of quantum field theory (along with the CP transformation). The statistical equations, however, are irreversible. This contradiction has been known since the end of the Nineteenth Century. We shall speak of it as the "global paradox of reversibility" of statistical physics. The traditional explanation ascribes irreversibility to the initial conditions. However, the nonequivalent status of the two directions of time is still retained in the picture of the world.

Present-day cosmology opens up the possibility of eliminating this paradox. The idea of an expanding Universe is now generally accepted in cosmology; according to it, a certain instant in time is characterized by the vanishing of the spatial metric tensor (this time backward in time: of the "Friedmann singularity" will here be denoted a certain instant in time is characterized by the vanishing of the spatial metric tensor (this time backward in time: of the "Friedmann singularity" will here be denoted Century. We shall speak of it as the "global paradox of reversibility" of statistical physics. The traditional explanation ascribes irreversibility to the initial conditions. However, the nonequivalent status of the two directions of time is still retained in the picture of the world.

Present-day cosmology opens up the possibility of eliminating this paradox. The idea of an expanding Universe is now generally accepted in cosmology; according to it, a certain instant in time is characterized by the vanishing of the spatial metric tensor (this time backward in time: of the "Friedmann singularity" will here be denoted a certain instant in time is characterized by the vanishing of the spatial metric tensor (this time backward in time: of the "Friedmann singularity" will here be denoted Century. We shall speak of it as the "global paradox of reversibility" of statistical physics. The traditional explanation ascribes irreversibility to the initial conditions. However, the nonequivalent status of the two directions of time is still retained in the picture of the world.

The equations of motion of classical mechanics and of nonrelativistic quantum mechanics admit time reversal; so also do the equations of quantum field theory (along with the CP transformation). The statistical equations, however, are irreversible. This contradiction has been known since the end of the Nineteenth Century. We shall speak of it as the "global paradox of reversibility" of statistical physics. The traditional explanation ascribes irreversibility to the initial conditions. However, the nonequivalent status of the two directions of time is still retained in the picture of the world.

Present-day cosmology opens up the possibility of eliminating this paradox. The idea of an expanding Universe is now generally accepted in cosmology; according to it, a certain instant in time is characterized by the vanishing of the spatial metric tensor (this time backward in time: of the "Friedmann singularity" will here be denoted a certain instant in time is characterized by the vanishing of the spatial metric tensor (this time backward in time: of the "Friedmann singularity" will here be denoted Century. We shall speak of it as the "global paradox of reversibility" of statistical physics. The traditional explanation ascribes irreversibility to the initial conditions. However, the nonequivalent status of the two directions of time is still retained in the picture of the world.

The equations of motion of classical mechanics and of nonrelativistic quantum mechanics admit time reversal; so also do the equations of quantum field theory (along with the CP transformation). The statistical equations, however, are irreversible. This contradiction has been known since the end of the Nineteenth Century. We shall speak of it as the "global paradox of reversibility" of statistical physics. The traditional explanation ascribes irreversibility to the initial conditions. However, the nonequivalent status of the two directions of time is still retained in the picture of the world.

There exists a large number of models in which the Universe is now generally accepted in cosmology; according to it, a certain instant in time is characterized by the vanishing of the spatial metric tensor (this time backward in time: of the "Friedmann singularity" will here be denoted a certain instant in time is characterized by the vanishing of the spatial metric tensor (this time backward in time: of the "Friedmann singularity" will here be denoted Century. We shall speak of it as the "global paradox of reversibility" of statistical physics. The traditional explanation ascribes irreversibility to the initial conditions. However, the nonequivalent status of the two directions of time is still retained in the picture of the world.

The equations of motion of classical mechanics and of nonrelativistic quantum mechanics admit time reversal; so also do the equations of quantum field theory (along with the CP transformation). The statistical equations, however, are irreversible. This contradiction has been known since the end of the Nineteenth Century. We shall speak of it as the "global paradox of reversibility" of statistical physics. The traditional explanation ascribes irreversibility to the initial conditions. However, the nonequivalent status of the two directions of time is still retained in the picture of the world.

There exists a large number of models in which the Universe is now generally accepted in cosmology; according to it, a certain instant in time is characterized by the vanishing of the spatial metric tensor (this time backward in time: of the "Friedmann singularity" will here be denoted a certain instant in time is characterized by the vanishing of the spatial metric tensor (this time backward in time: of the "Friedmann singularity" will here be denoted Century. We shall speak of it as the "global paradox of reversibility" of statistical physics. The traditional explanation ascribes irreversibility to the initial conditions. However, the nonequivalent status of the two directions of time is still retained in the picture of the world.

As a model example of reversal of time's arrow let us consider the classical kinetic theory of gases. At the time $t=0$ we postulate a spherical symmetry of velocity distribution of the molecules at each point in space and nonuniform density and temperature distributions in space. We assume (and this is particularly important) that at $t=0$ there is no correlation between the relative positions and relative velocities of the molecules; in this case this is the "statistical condition" by means of which one proves that the value of the entropy at the point $t=0$ is a minimum.

In an earlier paper the writer put forward the hypothesis that the Universe possesses cosmological CPT symmetry. According to this hypothesis, all events in the Universe are symmetric relative to the hypersurface that corresponds to the instant $t$ of cosmological collapse. Setting $t=0$ for this instant, we require that there be symmetry under the transformation $t \rightarrow -t$. The only exact symmetry that includes time inversion is CPT symmetry. It follows from CPT symmetry that the point $t$ is singular and is neutral with respect to all invariant charges. We shall define CPT-conjugate fields on the auxiliary half-space $x_{\nu}(t) > 0$, and denote these fields with the indices $a$ and $b$. We postulate:

for spinors, $\psi^a = \chi^b$;

for the components of a unit tetrad, $e^a_{\nu} = -e^b_{\mu}$ (PT reflection). (The index referred to the tetrad is put in parentheses).

We map the field $\psi$ onto the region $t > 0$ and the field $\phi$ onto the region $t < 0$ (with the corresponding change of sign of $e^a_{\nu}$). From the condition of continuity at the hypersurface we have $\phi_q(0) = \psi_q(t=0)$ (the point $t=0$ in singular) and $\phi(t=0) = \chi(t=0)$, so that the current vanishes, $i(t=0) = 0$, and $s(t=0) = 0$. (The point $t=0$ in singular). The neutrality condition at the point $t=0$.

The neutrality of the Universe requires that the observed baryon asymmetry has arisen in the course of nonequilibrium processes of expansion of the Universe.
unifying the strong, weak, and electromagnetic interactions [for example, the reversal of time's arrow. It suffices to assume that at the instant \( t \) the statistical conditions that there be no correlations is satisfied. The most natural assumption, according to which violation of CPT symmetry in reversal of time's arrow is due to the presence of a finite invariant combined charge (of course provided such a charge exists and does not possess a gauge field). The numerical size of the combined charge here has no direct connection with the residual baryon asymmetry, which arises dynamically in the course of the expansion of the Universe.

The reversal of time's arrow (with or without CPT symmetry) is possible either in the ordinary open model of the Universe, or also in models with infinite repetition of cycles of expansion and contraction (in pulsating models, or, in the present writer's terminology, in "many-sheeted" models, see Ref. 2). Owing to their inherent singularities, these latter models seem more interesting, and we shall consider them in more detail.

First of all we emphasize that in these models cycles close to the instant \( t \) must be decidedly different from the "later" cycles, for which all the main statistical characteristics asymptotically approach their limiting values for \( n \to +\infty \) (\( n \) is the number of the cycle, \( n \to +\infty \)). These limiting "self-reproducing" values correspond to the many-sheet model without reversal of time's arrow, cf. Ref. 2. In the many-sheet model without reversal of time's arrow, according to Ref. 2, the spatial curvature and all of the invariant charges must be equal to zero (in the sense of average values). In the model with reversal of time's arrow these quantities must only become zero asymptotically. In this sense the many-sheeted sort of model is more general.

Accordingly, let us examine a model with a finite spatial curvature \(-\alpha^2\) and, possibly, a finite combined charge. We shall suppose that the curvature is negative (\( \alpha \) is the hyperbolic radius), which evidently corresponds to the observations. We shall also assume that the Einstein cosmological constant is different from zero, with its sign corresponding to a vacuum energy density \( \varepsilon < 0 \). We make no assumption about the absolute value \( |\varepsilon| \), but it is very probable that \( |\varepsilon| \) is small in comparison with the mean density of matter at the present time. The negative sign corresponds to breaking of the symmetry of the vacuum state with \( \varepsilon = 0 \).

The dynamics of the Universe is determined by the Einstein equation

\[
5G\mathcal{N} = \frac{1}{2} \dot{R}^2,
\]

which we write in the form (with \( c \), the speed of light, set equal to 1)

\[
H^2 = \frac{\kappa}{3} - \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho + \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R^2},
\]

where \( H \) is the Hubble parameter; \( \rho \) is the density of "ordinary" matter; \( \varepsilon \) and \( 1/\rho \) go to zero for \( \alpha \to \infty \).

Since \( \varepsilon - \text{const} < 0 \), at some value of \( \alpha \) the quantity \( H \) goes to zero and expansion is replaced by contraction. Accordingly, the Universe experiences an infinite number of cycles of expansion and contraction.

For the initial conditions in the neighborhood of the point \( \Phi \), the following four types of assumption are the most natural (\( \rho \) is the density of entropy, and \( n_r \) is the density of the combined charge; \( n_r = 0 \) means that there is no combined charge or that it is equal to zero):

1) \( \alpha = -\infty \), \( n_r = \infty \); 2) \( \alpha = -\infty \), \( n_r = 0 \); 3) \( \alpha = -\infty \), \( n_r = -\infty \); 4) \( \alpha = 0 \), \( n_r = \infty \).

Types 2) and 4) correspond to cosmological CPT symmetry. In the case of types 1) and 3), the CPT symmetry is broken by the presence of combined charge, which can lead to important differences in the details of the world picture in the positive and negative cycles. Types 1) and 2) correspond to hot models of the Universe, types 3) and 4), to cold models. A cold model is the natural realization of the reversal of time's arrow, but on the whole there are neither theoretical nor experimental data for the choice of a definite type.

The entropy \( n_r \alpha^2 \) in a comoving volume \( \alpha^3 \) increases in each cycle. Let us suppose that as \( n \) increases by 1 the entropy increases by a factor \( \gamma \); to calculate this number, which is possible in principle, one would have to take into account the main nonequilibrium processes. At present in "our" cycle \( n \) the entropy \( n_r \alpha^2 - n_r \alpha^2 / H^2 \), where \( n_r \) is the density of photons of the residual radiation. It is assumed that the density \( \rho \) is less than the critical density. For types 1) and 2) we have an estimate of the ordinal number \( n_r \) of our cycle (as an example we have taken \( n = 1.1\)):

\[
|n_r| \approx \frac{\hbar a_H \alpha^2}{m_e c^3} \approx 10^{70} \text{ cm}^{-3} \approx 2 \times 10^{38} \text{ cm}^{-3}.
\]

In the cold types of model additional cycles are necessary to produce the initial entropy; in type 4) the initial particles arise as the result of a large number of almost empty cycles, owing to the small curvature, proportional to \( |\varepsilon| \).

Writing for the density of the residual-radiation photons \( \delta^2 \), \( \delta \approx 0.1 \text{ cm} \), we have a very small dimensionless number \( \delta^2 / 2 \Rightarrow 10^{-5} \), which characterizes the curvature of the Universe (provided, of course, that the curvature is not identically equal to zero, which still cannot be regarded as excluded). An important advantage of the many-sheet model with reversal of time's arrow is the possibility of explaining in a natural way the appearance of this dimensionless number in the course of successive cycles of expansion and contraction.
On searches for new long-range forces

L. B. Okun

Institute for Theoretical and Experimental Physics, Moscow

(Submitted 28 February 1980)

Zh. Eksp. Teor. Fiz. 82, 694-697 (September 1980)

The hypothesis of existence of long-range forces in addition to gravitational and electromagnetic forces is discussed. It is assumed that these forces act between so far experimentally undiscovered massive elementary particles of a new type. Proposed searches for such particles can be carried out by means of exact and systematic gravimetric measurements both at the surface of the Earth and within the confines of the solar system.

PACS numbers: 14.80.Ks, 12.90.+b

The 1970's were distinguished by the discovery of a large number of new elementary particles and of the gauge interactions among them. The existing theoretical models make it plausible to assume that as one probes deeper to shorter and shorter distances one will discover new types of particles and short-range forces. At the same time there is a widespread belief that in addition to gravitation and electromagnetism there are no other long-range forces in nature. The latter conviction seems to me to be insufficiently founded and should be subjected to an experimental verification from all sides. An example of long-range interactions was proposed in Refs. 1 and 2, where the hypothetical theta-interaction was introduced, having a macroscopic confinement radius, and it was shown that the existence of particles which have nonabelian interactions is not excluded by the existing experimental data. In the present paper we make some additional remarks regarding the observable consequences which the existence of particles having a new type of long-range interaction can lead to, both for the nonabelian (of the theton type) or abelian (of the photon type) cases.

The likelihood that the particles and interactions discussed below exist in reality seems today to be vanishingly small. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to set up experiments to search for them, if such experiments do not require special expensive efforts, and can be achieved in the framework of already existing programs. Even if such searches should not lead to the discovery of new types of matter, they could considerably narrow down the space of reasonable possibilities.

For the remainder of this discussion it is convenient to introduce the following terminology. We shall call the known gauge fields (photons, gluons, intermediate vector bosons) fields of the type $\omega$, and shall denote them collectively by $V$. We call the usual quarks and leptons fermions of type $\alpha$, and denote them by $F$. We shall call $\omega$-particles both the $V$'s and the $F$'s.

We assume that there exist as yet undiscovered gauge fields $V'_\alpha$, among them some with long-range action, fields which do not interact with the $\omega$-particles. We call fermions which interact only with the