RESEARCH

The mass of the observable universe on the basis of its age in black-hole cosmology

Richard M. Blaber

Blaber R M., The mass of the observable universe on the basis of its age in black-hole cosmology. J Mod Appl Phys. 2023; 6(4):1-3.

ABSTRACT

On the assumption of black-hole cosmology, it is straightforward to calculate the mass of the observable Universe on the basis of its age. It will be shown here that this calculation is in agreement with one based on a relationship between fundamental physical constants, providing strong support for black-hole cosmology.

Key Words: Cosmology (theory); Large-scale structure of the Universe; Cosmological parameters; Black holes

Abbreviations:

FLRW= Friedman-Lemaitre Robertson-Walker (metric); Planck 2018 refers to the results from the Planck space observatory released in July 2018.

INTRODUCTION

 $B_{\rm enormous}$ black-hole cosmology is the claim that our Universe is an enormous black hole. It has had few advocates, among them [1-6]. Part of the problem is that these authors, whilst advocating a black-hole cosmology, do not agree with one another regarding its details.

Another part – the bigger one – is that black-hole cosmology, or cosmologies, does not appear to be consistent with the observation that the Universe is not merely expanding, but that its expansion is accelerating [7-10].

Even the promoters of the idea of an accelerating expansion of the Universe would be forced to concede that we should not use the present tense when discussing its expansion, still less any putative acceleration of it, because what we see of red-shifted distant galaxies, and the Type Ia supernovae in them, is very ancient light indeed – billions of years old [11]. Any expansion, and any acceleration of it, if it took place, took place long ago.

Not all researchers agree that the Universe's expansion is (or was) accelerating, not just Vishwakarma : Nielsen, Guffanti and Sarkar (2016), Mohayaee, Rameez and Sarkar (2021), Ni et al (2022), inter alios, are among those who have questioned the reliability of the observational data on which the assumptions regarding the accelerated expansion have been based [12-14].

A black-hole cosmology

A black-hole cosmology is not, in fact, wholly dissimilar to the Newtonian one described [15]. There would have to be an absolute cosmic time coordinate, for reasons adduced by Gödel (1949), and is assumed in the 'FLRW' metric (Robertson, 1935; Walker, 1937), provided that the Universe is isotropic and homogeneous, conforming to the 'cosmological principle' [16-21]. This, however, is denied by many, if not most, advocates of black-hole cosmology, including Poplawski.

Furthermore, the cosmic horizon would not be a particle horizon, but an event horizon, as they are both defined [22-24]. This point is affirmed by Melia (2007; see Schwarzschild, 1916, 1999) [25, 26]. Melia is one of those denying the existence of an absolute cosmic time, but he also claims that the interior of a black hole's space-time should be 'flat' and describable using the Minkowski metric (Minkowski, 1909, 2011), citing Birkhoff's [27- 29].

As Melia points out, the Schwarzschild metric applies to the exterior of the black hole. If our space-time is Minkowskian, the appropriate formula for calculating redshifts is that of the Special, not General, Theory of Relativity (Melia, 2012), i.e., the formula is not for 'gravitational redshifts', being: $z=[(1 + \beta)/(1 - \beta)]\frac{1}{2} - 1$, where $\beta = v/c$, v is the recessional velocity of distant celestial objects relative to the observer [30].

Independent Researcher, retired. United Kingdom

Correspondence: Independent Researcher, retired. United Kingdom. E-mail: richardblaber1956@gmail.com Received: - 12 October, 2023, Manuscript No. puljmap-23-6793; Editor assigned: - 14 October, 2023, Pre-QC No. puljmap-23-6793 (PQ); Reviewed: - 18 October, 2023, QC No. puljmap-23-6793 (Q); Revised: - 21 October, 2023, Manuscript No puljmap-23-6793 (R); Published: - 28 October 2023, DOI: 10.37532/puljmap-23-6806.2023.6.4.1-3

OPENDOR This open-access article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (CC BY-NC) (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits reuse, distribution and reproduction of the article, provided that the original work is properly cited and the reuse is restricted to noncommercial purposes. For commercial reuse, contact reprints@pulsus.com

Blaber

When v=c, z= ∞ . As Melia (2007 and 2012) points out, it is easy to show that the FLRW metric reduces to the Minkowski one when the scale-factor $a(t_0) = H_0(t_0) = 1$, and the Hubble parameter, $H_0 \equiv t_0^{-1} \equiv \tau_0^{-1}$, where τ is the Hubble time. We can also write R_0 =ct_0=ct_0=c/H_0, where R_0 is the Hubble radius. The General Theory applies at the local scale, but not at the cosmic scale.

It is assumed here that the Universe is not merely isotropic and homogeneous, but spherically symmetric and stationary (i.e., not rotating about an axis, as the Godel universe- that, in other words, it is a Schwarzschild black hole, but its spacetime singularity, being in the past, is now at its circumference, not at its centre, which represents the observer's present. We are, as it were, at the centre of a neo- or quasi-Ptolemaic cosmic chronosphere.

If our Universe is, indeed, an enormous black hole, its present age will be given by:

 $t_0 = 2 \mathrm{GM}/c^3$

As t0=13.801 billion years= $4.355264376 \times 10^{17}$ s, it is easy to see, by rearrangement of (1), that the mass, M, of the observable Universe, will equal

 $c^{3} t_{0}/2G = 8.791053 \times 10^{52} \text{ kg}$ (20) [31]

As Davies (1982) points out (but substituting the present age of the Universe for the Hubble time), it is the case that [32]:

$$N_{E} = (\hbar c / Gmp^{2})(mpc^{2}t_{0} / \hbar) = c^{3}t_{0} / Gm_{p} = 1.05117 \times 10^{80} (3a)$$

Here, N_E is Eddington's number, the number of protons and electrons in the Universe, m_p is the rest-mass of the proton, and the expression $\hbar c/Gm_p^2$ is the inverse of the gravitational fine-structure constant = $\alpha G^{-1} = M_p^2 / m_p^2$, where MP is the Planck mass=2.176434 × 10⁸ kg.

The expression ${M_p}^2$ /m_e, where m_e is the rest-mass of the electron, yields a mass, of 5.19984 \times 10¹⁴ kg – that of a modest-sized asteroid. However, multiply this by αG^{-1} , and one obtains:

$$M = (\hbar c)^{2} / (Gm_{p})^{2} m_{e} = M_{p}^{4} / m_{p}^{2} m_{e} = 8.80435 \times 10^{52} kg$$
(4)
Combining equations (2) and (3) gives us
$$M = N_{E} m_{p} / 2 = 8.791053 \times 10^{52} kg$$
(5)

The figures in (2), (4) and (5), it should be noted, are about a third of that given by Corbeel and Magain (2023– their figure is 2.7846×10^{53} kg or 1.4×10^{23} solar masses; their figure is excessive, but they are advocates of black-hole cosmology) [33]. How to reconcile equations (2) and (5) with (4)? The simplest answer is to adjust the value of to – and it does not need much adjustment, on the scale we are considering.

Substituting the value for M obtained from (4) in equation (1) gives us a value for t₀ of $4.361851836 \times 10^{17}s = 13,821,874,400$ years, 20,874,400 years more than the Planck 2018 figure (Aghanim et al, ibid.). It is possible, of course, that the Planck 2018 figure is correct, and the time in equations (1), (2) and (3) is not the present age of the Universe, but the age, t_{MAX}, at which it will reach its maximum size, given by its Schwarzschild radius:

 $R_{\rm s} = 2GM / c^2 = 1.307650283 \times 10^{27} m = 13,821,874,400 \ l.y$ (6)

What happens to it after that may depend on the amount of entropy

it contains at that time, given the Bekenstein-Hawking formula [34]:

$$S_{BH} = 4GM^2 k / \hbar c = 9.037467145 \times 10^{98} J K^{-1}$$
. (7)

This may well correspond to the 'heat-death' of the Universe, or state of thermodynamic equilibrium, envisaged by Lord Kelvin, provided only that the Universe is closed and finite, rather than infinite, especially if, as Penrose (2010) asserts, the 'Big Bang' had very low – even 'tiny' – entropy [35, 36].

We have in this paper seen ample evidence to support the assertion that our observable Universe is an enormous black hole, with maximum horizon surface area= 2.1487856×10^{55} m² and maximum volume = 9.3662×10^{81} m³. The matter inside that black hole has yet to fill all of the available space and has just over 20.87 million years to do so if the suggestion made here is correct. This is just -0.385% of the remaining main sequence life span of our Sun, which is -5.42 billion years [37].

Cosmic expansion is here not a question of space expanding, as with the FLRW metric, but of matter expanding to fill a finite proportion of infinite space, the bulk of which is empty. Our Universe is thus, on this view, a finite, closed space-time pseudo-Riemannian manifold in an infinite Euclidean space-time, but causally isolated from it [38]. It is also quasi-Ptolemaic, in that we, as observers, are privileged – being at the centre of it – for our viewpoint is the centre of the sphere that constitutes the black hole, with the singularity at its circumference. At $R_s=ct_{MAX}$, the redshift $z=\infty$.

There is neither 'dark energy' nor 'dark matter', only the kind we are familiar with here on Earth. Furthermore, there was no 'cosmic inflation': the hypothesis is redundant because the velocity of cosmic expansion has always been $v_E \leq c$. The minimum density of matter in the observable Universe will be ρ_{MIN} = 9.4 \times 10³⁰ kg m³, with the energy density 8.4484 \times 10-13 J m³ and the proton-electron particle density, N_E/V =0.011239994 m³, given

$$N_E = c^3 t_{MAX} / Gm_p = 1.05276 \times 10^{80}$$
 (3b)

Given the value of $t_{MAX} \equiv \tau_{MAX}$, the final value of the Hubble parameter, H_{MAX} , will be 2.2926 × 10⁻¹⁸ s⁻¹ \simeq 70.743 km s⁻¹ Mpc⁻¹, compared to its current value, H₀, calculated from its age (as determined by Aghanim et al, op.cit.), of ~70.85 km s⁻¹ Mpc⁻¹.

The final acceleration parameter of the Universe, $q_{\text{MAX}},$ will be given by:

$$q_{MAX} = 4\pi G \rho_{MIN} t_{MAX}^{2} / 3 \simeq 0.0005$$
 (8)

The final density parameter, $\Omega_{MAX}=2q_{MAX} \simeq 0.001$. This would normally entail a space-time with near-zero curvature, but – as already stated – the General Theory of Relativity, although it applies at local scales, does not apply at the cosmic scale, and thus the curvature of space-time remains zero, or 'flat', i.e., Euclidean, regardless of the values of q_{MAX} and Ω_{MAX} . The finite cosmos is thus the Newtonian one of McCrea and Milne with escape velocity, or – more correctly – speed, as it is independent of direction, given by:

$$v_{e} = \left(8\pi G \rho_{MIN} R_{S}^{2} / 3\right)^{\nu_{2}} = \left(2GM / R_{S}\right)^{\nu_{2}} = c$$
(9)

It is clear, however, that black-hole cosmologies will remain controversial pending further, decisive, empirical evidence in their favour, of the kind supplied [39]. It must be accepted, though, that

The mass of the observable universe on the basis of its age...

this evidence may well support an anisotropic Universe.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author asserts that he has no conflict of interest, and has received no funding for his research from any source or sources, public, private or voluntary sector.

REFERENCES

- 1. Pathria RK. The Universe as a Black Hole. Nature. 1972; 240(5379):298-299.
- Derney G, Farnsworth D. A Black-Hole Cosmology. Acta Cosmologica. 1983; 12:41-46.
- Zhang T. A New Cosmological Model: Black Hole Universe. Prog. Phy. 2009; 3:3-11.
- Seshavaratharam UVS, Lakshminarayana S. Basics of Black Hole Cosmology – First Critical Scientific Review. Phys. Sci. Int. J. 2014; 4(6):842-879.
- 5. Perelman CC. Asymptotic Safety, Black-Hole Cosmology and the Universe as a Gravitating Vacuum State. 2020.
- Popławski N. The universe as a closed anisotropic universe born in a black hole. 2020.
- Riess AG, et al. Observational Evidence from Supernovae for an Accelerating Universe and a Cosmological Constant. Astron. J. 1998; 116(3):1009-1038.
- Perlmutter S, Turner MS, White M. Constraining Dark Energy with Type Ia Supernovae and Large-Scale Structure. Phys. Rev. Lett. 1999; 83(4):670-675.
- 9. Perlmutter S. Supernovae, dark energy, and the accelerating universe: The status of the cosmological parameters. Int. J. Mod. Phys. A. 2000; 15:715-739.
- Vishwakarma RG. Is the present expansion of the Universe really accelerating? MNRAS. 2003; 345(2):545-551.
- Leibendgut B. Cosmological Implications from Observations of Type Ia Supernovae. Annu. Rev. Astron. Astrophys. 2001; 39:67-98.
- Nielsen JT, Guffanti A, Sarkar S. Marginal evidence for cosmic acceleration from Type Ia supernovae. Nat. Sci. Rep. 2016; 6:35596.
- Mohayaee R, Rameez M, Sarkar S. Do supernovae indicate an accelerating universe? Eur. Phys. J. Spec. Top. 2021; 230:2067-2076
- Ni YQ, et al. Infant-phase reddening by surface Fe-peak elements in a normal type Ia supernova. Nat. Astron. 2022; 6:568-576.
- McCrea WH, Milne EA. Newtonian Universes and the Curvature of Space. Q. J. Math.1934; 5(1):73-80.
- Gödel K. An Example of a New Type of Cosmological Solutions of Einstein's Field Equations of Gravitation. Rev. Mod. Phys. 1949; 21(3):447450.
- Robertson HP. Kinematics and World-Structure. I. Astrophys. J. 1935; 82:284-301.

- Robertson HP. Kinematics and World-Structure. II. Astrophys. J. 1936; 83:187-201.
- Robertson HP. Kinematics and World-Structure. III. Astrophys. J. 1936; 83(4):257-271.
- Walker AG. On Milne's Theory of World-Structure. Proc. Lond. Math. Soc. (2). 1937; 42(1):90-127.
- 21. Lorentz HA, Einstein A, Minkowski H, et al. The principle of relativity: a collection of original memoirs on the special and general theory of relativity. Dover Publ.
- 22. Milne EA. World Structure and the Expansion of the Universe. J. Astrophys. 6. 1933; 6:1.
- Barrow JD. What is the principal evidence for the cosmological principle? Q. J. R. Astron. Soc. 1989; 30:163-167.
- Rindler W. Visual Horizons in World Models. MNRAS. 1956; 116(6):662-677.
- Melia F. The cosmic horizon. Mon. Not. R. Astron. Soc. 2007; 382(4):1917-1921.
- Schwarzschild K. About the gravitational field of a mass point according to Einstein's theory. Rep. Meet. R. Prussian Acad. Sci. 1916:189-96.
- 27. Minkowski H. Space and Time Annual Reports of the German Association of Mathematicians.
- Langer RE, Birkhoff GD. Relativity and Modern Physics with the Cooperation of Rudolph Ernest Langer. Harvard University pres; 1923.
- 29. Johansen NV, Ravndal F. On the discovery of Birkhoffs theorem. arXiv. 2005.
- Melia F. Cosmological redshift in Friedmann-Robertson-Walker metrics with constant space-time curvature. Mon. Not. R. Astron. Soc. 2012; 422(2):1418-24.
- Aghanim N, Akrami Y, Ashdown M, et al. Planck 2018 results-VI. Cosmological parameters. Ast & Astrophy. 2020; 641:A6.
- 32. Davies PC. The accidental universe. CUP Archive; 1982.
- Corbeel A, Magain P. Our Universe as a Black Hole in a Larger Space. OSF Preprints. 2023.
- Bekenstein JD. Bekenstein-hawking entropy. Sch. 2008; 3(10):7375.
- Kelvin, W. Thomson, On the Age of the Sun's Heat Mac Mag. 1862.
- 36. Penrose R. Cycles of time: an extraordinary new view of the universe. Random House; 2010.
- Schröder KP, Connon Smith R. Distant future of the Sun and Earth revisited. Mon. Not. R. Astron. Soc. 2008; 386(1):155-63.
- Huby PH. Kant or Cantor? That the universe, if real, must be finite in both space and time. Philosophy. 1971; 46(176):121-32.
- Shamir L. Analysis of spin directions of galaxies in the DESI Legacy Survey. Mon. Not. R. Astron. Soc. 2022; 516(2):2281-91.