Introduction to Dark Energy Bertinoro May 2010

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Outline

- Gravity, expansion and acceleration
- Cosmological observations
- Dark energy: linear and non-linear properties

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Historical perspective, circa 350 b.c.e.



• Gravity is always attractive: how to avoid that the **sky** falls on our head?

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• Aristotle's answer: quintessence

Historical perspective, circa 1700 c.e.



Gravity is always attractive: how to avoid that the stars fall on our head?

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• Newton's answer: God's initial conditions

Historical perspective, circa 1900 c.e.



- Gravity is always attractive: how to avoid that the Universe fall on our head?
- **Einstein**'s answer: to avoid collapse (to make the universe stable) it is necessary to introduce a form of repulsive gravity, by modifying the equations of General Relativity.

There is a simple Newtonian solution

$$\Phi = -G\frac{M}{r} + \lambda r^2$$

Newton himself noted the possibility of the r^2 repulsive behavior but did not comment further!

Original GR equations

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} Rg_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$$
geometry matter
$$T^{\nu}_{\mu} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} \rho & 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & -\rho & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & -\rho & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\rho \end{array} \right\}$$

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• These are the most general equations that are

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- 1. covariant
- 2. covariantly conserved
- 3. second order in the metric
- 4. reducing to Newton at low energy

Box on $T_{\mu\nu}$ Basic hydrodynamic equations for a non-relativistic fluid at rest:

$$\dot{\rho} = 0 \tag{1}$$
$$\nabla p = 0$$

where the energy density $\rho = nmc^2$ and the pressure is $p_i = nmv_i^2$. If we define the matrix

$$T_{\mu\nu} = diag(
ho,
ho,
ho,
ho,
ho)$$

then, more simply

$$\frac{\partial T^{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^{\mu}} \equiv T^{\mu\nu}_{,\mu} = 0$$

The relativistic version is the only tensor that depends on ρ , p, $u^{\mu} = dx^{\mu}/ds$, $g_{\mu\nu}$ and reduces to this limit in the Minkowski space

$$T^{\mu\nu} = (\rho + \rho)u^{\mu}u^{\nu} - \rho g^{\mu\nu}$$
(2)

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Einstein's equations are complete only when a relation between p and p is given: the equation of state:

 $p = w \rho$

Back to

$$R_{\mu\nu}-\frac{1}{2}Rg_{\mu\nu}=8\pi GT_{\mu\nu}$$

For instance, neglecting the third condition (second order in the metric), we could add whatever rank-2 tensor covariantly conserved, e.g. any E^{ν}_{μ} such that

$$E_{\mu;\nu}^{\nu}=0$$

like e.g. a linear combination of

$$RR_{\mu\nu}, R_{;\mu\nu}, R^2g_{\mu\nu}, \dots$$

as for instance [F = F(R)]

$$E_{\mu\nu} \equiv F' R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} F g_{\mu\nu} + g_{\mu\nu} \Box F' - F'_{;\mu;\nu}$$

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obtaining a higher-order gravity.

• Neglecting instead the fourth condition, we can add a (*small*) term $\Lambda g_{\mu\nu}$ and rewrite the equations as

$$R_{\mu\nu}-\frac{1}{2}Rg_{\mu\nu}-\Lambda g_{\mu\nu}=8\pi GT_{\mu\nu}$$

• The new term is the **cosmological constant**.

> The big idea of recent years has been to move the new term from right to left

$$R_{\mu\nu}-\frac{1}{2}Rg_{\mu\nu}=8\pi GT_{\mu\nu}+\Lambda g_{\mu\nu}$$

thereby introducing a new form of matter

$$T_{\mu\nu(\Lambda)} = \left(\frac{\Lambda}{8\pi}\right)g_{\mu\nu}$$

This matter has a fundamental property. Writing

$$T^{\nu}_{\mu(\Lambda)} = \left(rac{\Lambda}{8\pi}
ight)\delta^{
u}_{\mu}$$

or

$$\left\{\begin{array}{cccc} \rho & 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & -\rho & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & -\rho & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\rho \end{array}\right\} = \left\{\begin{array}{cccc} \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi} & 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi} \end{array}\right\}$$

one gets immediately

$$\rho_{\Lambda} = -\frac{\Lambda}{8\pi}, \quad \rho_{\Lambda} = \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi}$$

that is, the cosmological constant has negative pressure (if A > 0).

Introducing the equation of state

 $p = w \rho$

one has that the cosmological constant has a negative eq. of state

w = -1

As a comparison, the eq. of state of matter (dust or cold dark matter) is

$$p=mv^2\approx 0 \rightarrow w=0$$

while for radiation

$$p = \rho/3 \rightarrow w = 1/3$$

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A repulsive gravity

- What a negative pressure has to do with a repulsive gravity?
- Homogeneous and isotropic Friedmann metric

$$ds^{2} = dt^{2} - a^{2} \left(\frac{dr^{2}}{1 - kr^{2}} + r^{2} \sin \theta \, d\phi^{2} + r^{2} \, d\theta^{2} \right)$$

For a single perfect fluid, the ten Einstein equations reduce to two equations for the scale factor and the energy density (here we put for simplicity k = 0 and always assume $a_0 = 1$)

$$H^2 \equiv \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3}\rho \tag{3}$$

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$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi}{3}(\rho + 3\rho) = -\frac{4\pi}{3}\rho(1 + 3w)$$
(4)

From the second one it appears that if

$$w < -1/3$$

then we get accelerated expansion. Therefore the cosmological constant (or any fluid with w < -1/3) accelerates the expansion \rightarrow "repulsive gravity". We call this hypothetical fluid *Dark Energy*.

Consider now only the cosm. constant

$$H^2 \equiv \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3}\rho_{\Lambda} = \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

from which

$$a = a_0 e^{\sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3}}t}$$

This accelerated expansion is a prototype of primordial inflation (de Sitter metric).

Generally speaking, there are at least three components (plus curvature) so that dynamics is more complicate:

$$H^{2} \equiv \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^{2} = \frac{8\pi}{3}\left(\rho_{\gamma} + \rho_{M} + \rho_{\Lambda}\right) - \frac{k}{a^{2}}$$
$$\dot{\rho}_{i} + 3H(\rho_{i} + \rho_{i}) = 0$$

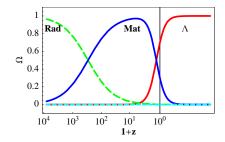
Ordinary matter (baryons plus dark matter) conserves energy during expansion, so that we have **four** different behaviors

$$egin{array}{rcl} &
ho_{\gamma} & \sim & a^{-4} \ &
ho_{M} & \sim & a^{-3} \ &
ho_{k} \equiv rac{k}{a^{2}} & \sim & a^{-2} \ &
ho_{\Lambda} & \sim & a^{0} \end{array}$$

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► In general, therefore, we have

 $rad. \rightarrow matter \rightarrow curvature \rightarrow cosm.const.$



$$\Omega_i \equiv rac{
ho_i}{
ho_t}$$

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Quantistic interpretation

- Think of a field, eg a scalar field, as a series of classical oscillators. Then, every oscillator contributes an energy due to the sum of its potential and kinetic energy.
- When at rest, every oscillator has only its potential energy of the lowest level, that we can always put to zero.
- Quantistically, however, the state of minimum is not at zero energy but rather

$$E_0=\frac{1}{2}\hbar \omega$$

Therefore, for a field, the total zero-point energy is

$$E_0 = \sum_i \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega_i$$

summing over all possible modes. Summing over $k_i = 2\pi/\lambda_i$ where $\lambda_i = L/n_i$ are all the wavelengths of the modes contained in a box of size *L*, we obtain $dn_i = dk_i L/2\pi$ modes in the range dk_i , so that

$$E_0=\frac{1}{2}\hbar L^3\int\frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3}\omega_k$$

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where the oscillation frequency is in relation to the particle's mass:

$$\omega^2 = k^2 + m^2/\hbar^2$$

The total energy density integrating up to a cut-off frequency k_{max} is then

$$\rho_{vacuum} = \lim \frac{E}{L^3} = \hbar \frac{k_{max}^4}{16\pi^2}$$

- The energy diverges at the high frequencies (ultraviolet divergence). We must suppose then that there is k_{max} beyond which a new interaction modifies the system.
- The problem is, which k_{max} ?. If we assume as limit the Planck energy

we get

$$ho_{vacuum} = 10^{92} g/cm^3$$

Now, the experimental limit is

$$ho = 3H^2/8\pi G \simeq 10^{-29}g/cm^3$$

then, the theoretical estimate is off by 120 orders of magnitude!

• This fundamental theoretical problem is still **open**.

Astronomy of Dark Energy

• We have seen that the Friedmann equation has the form

$$H^{2} = \frac{8\pi}{3}(\rho_{M} + \rho_{\Lambda} + \rho_{k} + ...?)$$

- Suppose we know nothing of the matter content of the universe. How to study the structure of the cosmos ?
- ► Three levels:
- 1. background effects (age, distances)
- 2. linear perturbations (large scale clustering, CMB)
- 3. non-linear perturbations (formation of collapsed objects, halo profiles).

Notice that a smooth component, as the Λ , has no **local** observational effects: The Poisson equation remains invaried, because in linear GR the Poisson equation

$$\triangle \Psi = -4\pi G
ho$$

becomes

$$\triangle \Psi = -4\pi G \delta \rho$$

That's why we need cosmology !



From observations to theory

- What we really observe in cosmology is light from sources and from backgrounds.
- How do we connect these observables to cosmological quantities like $\rho_m, \rho_\gamma, k, a(t), H_0$ etc?
- First, define

$$\Omega_M = \frac{8\pi\rho_0}{3H_0^2}, \quad \Omega_\Lambda = \frac{8\pi\rho_\Lambda}{3H_0^2}, \quad \Omega_k = \frac{8\pi k}{3H_0^2}$$

and note that

$$1 = \Omega_M + \Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_k$$

so rewrite Friedman equation as $(a_0 = 1)$

$$H^2 = H_0^2 (\Omega_m a^{-3} + \Omega_\Lambda a^0 + \Omega_k a^{-2})$$

Then, generalize it to several components:

$$H^{2} = H_{0}^{2}(\Omega_{m}a^{-3(1+w_{m})} + \Omega_{\Lambda}a^{-3(1+w_{\Lambda})} + ...)$$

= $H_{0}^{2}\sum_{i}\Omega_{i}a^{-3(1+w_{i})} = H_{0}^{2}E(a)^{2}$

► For instance...

name	density Ω_i	state w _i
baryons	0.05	pprox 0
CDM	0.2	0
radiation	0.0001	1/3
massive neutr.	< 0.05	pprox 0
cosm. const.	0.75	-1
curvature	< 0.03	-1/3
other ?	?	?

- Unknown quantities: H_0, Ω_i, w_i to be determined using:
- 1. Angular positions of sources, e.g. galaxies: θ_i, φ_i
- 2. Redshifts: z_i
- 3. Apparent magnitudes: m_i
- 4. galaxy ellipticities
- 5. Age of Universe/age of stars
- 6. Background radiation/polarization e.g. CMB: $\Delta T/T$
- BASIC RELATION redshift/scale factor:

$$a=rac{1}{1+z}$$

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First basic observable: Age of the Universe

• The age of the universe can be deduced from the Friedmann equation:

$$\left(\frac{da}{dt}\right)^2 = H_0^2 a^2 E(a)^2$$

we get

$$\left(\frac{dz}{H_0 dt}\right) = (1+z)E(z)$$

and finally

$$t_0 - t_1 = H_0^{-1} \int_0^{z_1} \frac{dz}{(1+z)E(z)}$$

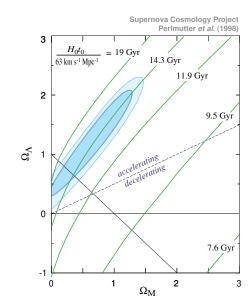
Notice that the Hubble constant is

$$H_0^{-1} = \frac{1}{100 \, h \, km/sec/Mpc} = 9.76 \, h^{-1} \, Gyr$$

For $z_1 \rightarrow \infty$ we get then the age of the universe.

► The effect of the cosmological constant, when $\Omega_{tot} = \Omega_M + \Omega_\Lambda$ is fixed, is to increase the cosmological age.

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Best fit age of universe: $t_0 = 14.5 \pm 1$ (0.63/h) Gyr

Second basic observable: Luminosity distance

From flat Friedmann's metric

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - a^2 dr^2$$

and integrating along the null geodesics, we get the **proper distance** which is what you would measure with fixed rods

$$r = \int \frac{cdt}{a(t)} = c \int \frac{da}{\dot{a}a} = c \int \frac{dz}{H(z)}$$

 \rightarrow generalized Hubble law: measuring distances means measuring cosmology.

• If we compare the energy *L* emitted by a source at proper distance *r* with flux *f* arriving at the observer, we define the **luminosity distance** d(z) such that

$$f = \frac{L}{4\pi r^2 (1+z)^2} = \frac{L}{4\pi d^2}$$

The two extra factors of 1 + z take into account the loss of energy due to redshift and the spread of energy due to the relative dilatation of the emission time versus observer's time. We get

$$d(z) = r(1+z) = cH_0^{-1}(1+z)\int_0^{z_1} \frac{dz}{E(z)}$$

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where $cH_0^{-1} = \frac{300.000 km/sec}{100 hkm/sec/Mpc} = 3000 h^{-1} Mpc$.

Remember our "reference" cosmology

$$E^{2}(z) = \Omega_{M}(1+z)^{3} + \Omega_{\Lambda} + \Omega_{K}(1+z)^{2}$$

- The luminosity distance therefore depends upon the cosmological constant and, like for the age, increases for Ω_Λ increasing. Therefore, a larger cosm. const. induces a smaller luminosity of the standard candles.
- Suppose we have a source of **known** absolute luminosity $M = -2.5 \log L + const$. Then one defines instead of the flux f an **apparent magnitude** $m = -2.5 \log f + const$ as

$$m-M=25+5\log d(z;\Omega_M,\Omega_\Lambda)$$

If *M* is the same for every object, then the apparent magnitude gives directly d(z) and is then possible to test for the presence of a cosmological constant.

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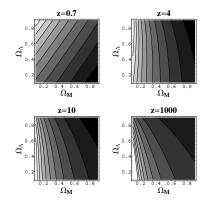
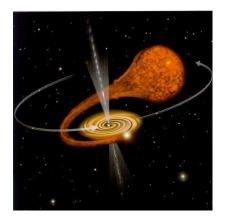


Figure: Curves of constant $d(z; \Omega_M, \Omega_\Lambda)$.

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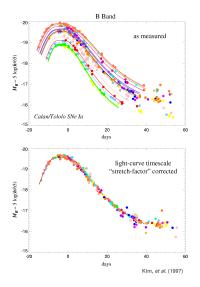
Standard candles

- There exist **standard candles** in nature ?
- The best such thing so far are **supernovae Ia**.



This hypothesis can be tested and calibrated through a local sample whose distance we know by other means.

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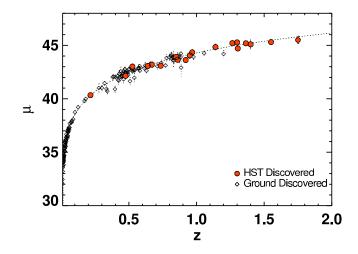
• Then, we compare $m_{obs}(z)$ with

$$m_{theor}(z) = M + 25 + \log d(z; \Omega_M, \Omega_\Lambda, ..)$$

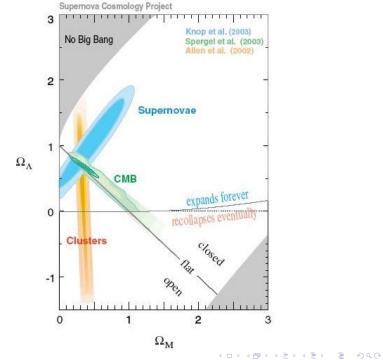
► For instance

z = 1, M = -19.5		
$\Omega_{M}=0, \Omega_{\Lambda}=1$	$\Omega_M = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0,$	
$m_{theor} = 24.4$	$m_{theor} = 23.2$	

More than twice as bright !



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Linear perturbations

General problem

$$\delta(R_{\mu\nu}-\frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R)=8\pi\delta(T_{\mu\nu})$$

► This introduces, at linear level, the following quantities:

 $\delta \rho, \delta \rho, \delta v, \delta g_{\mu v}$

The general perturbed metric can be written as

$$g_{\mu
u} = g^{(0)}_{\mu
u} + g^{(1)}_{\mu
u}$$

where in all generality

$$g_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} = a^2 \begin{pmatrix} 2\psi & w_i \\ w_i & 2\phi \delta_{ij} + h_{ij} \end{pmatrix}$$
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However, this is far too general for what we need. First, as any tensor field, the metric tensor can be written as a sum of terms that depend on purely scalar, vector and tensor quantities. For instance

$$w \equiv w^{\parallel} + w^{\perp} = \nabla w_{\rm s} + w^{\perp} \tag{6}$$

and

$$h_{ij} \equiv h\delta_{ij}/3 + h_{ij}^{\parallel} + h_{ij}^{\perp} + h_{ij}^{T}$$

$$\tag{7}$$

Only the scalar quantities couple to $\delta \rho$ so we consider only these now.

- ► Then, we can choose any reference frame, i.e. we can change the coordinates to $y^{\mu} = f(x^{\nu}) \rightarrow 4$ conditions on the metric coefficients. However, we would like to keep the unperturbed part $g_{\mu\nu}^{(0)}$ as it is. Then we can subject the perturbed part to 4 extra conditions: this is called *gauge choice*.
- One of the simplest choice is called *longitudinal* or *Newtonian*: we put $w_i = h = 0$ and obtain finally

$$g_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} = a^2 \begin{pmatrix} 2\Psi & 0\\ 0 & 2\Phi\delta_{ij} \end{pmatrix}$$
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Then we get the general perturbation equation. In particular, we also obtain $\Psi = \Phi$ if the fluid is a perfect fluid (no anisotropic stress).

Newtonian regime: small scales with respect to horizon H^{-1} , small velocities, for a single component

$$\dot{\delta} = -\nabla v$$

 $\dot{v}_i = Hv_i - \nabla \Phi$
 $\bigtriangleup \Phi = -4\pi a^2 \rho \delta$

• Deriving the first we get for the density perturbations $\delta = (\rho - \rho_M)/\rho_M$

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} = 4\pi\rho_M\delta \equiv \frac{3}{2}H^2\delta$$

 \rightarrow evolution of a density contrast under a gravitational potential proportional to ρ_M .

► To solve the equation is sufficient to know the behavior of H(t) and $\rho(t)$. If there is only matter, $H^2 = H_0^2 a^{-3}$ and the solutions are

$$\delta \sim a, \quad \delta \sim a^{-3/2}$$

Dark energy introduces two main effects: Growth of perturbations and Integrated Sachs Wolfe effect.

Growth of perturbations

• If there is a smooth component as the cosmological constant (for which $\delta_{\Lambda} = 0$) then all it changes is that $H^2 = H_0^2 \Omega_m a^{-3}$ where $\Omega_m < 1$: weaker gravity forcing. If $\Omega_m \approx const$. then

$$\begin{array}{lll} \delta & \sim & a^{\rho} \\ \rho & = & \frac{1}{4} \big(-1 \pm \sqrt{1 + 24\Omega_m} \big) \end{array}$$

- If the cosmological constant is the dominating component, the second member vanishes (there is no potential gradient) : $\delta \sim \text{const.}$
- A better way to study perturbation growth is to parametrize the growth in this way

$$\frac{d\log\delta}{d\log a}\approx\Omega_m(a)^\gamma,\quad\gamma\approx0.55$$

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Beyond the cosmological constant

- A cosm. constant, as we have seen, has a negative pressure and does not fluctuate.
- ▶ But any fluid with pressure $p = w\rho$ such that w < -1/3 has in fact similar properties.
- The simplest case is a scalar field φ. Pressure and energy for a potential V(φ) are

$$p = \frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi), \quad \rho = \frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 + V(\phi)$$

So that the conservation equation

$$\dot{\rho} + 3H(\rho + p) = 0$$

is in fact the Klein Gordon equation

$$\ddot{\phi} + 3H\dot{\phi} + V' = 0$$

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The eq. of state is

$$w = \frac{\frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)}{\frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^2 + V(\phi)}$$

kin. energy dominates	w ightarrow 1	stiff fluid
equipartition	w ightarrow 0	dust
pot. energy dominates	w ightarrow -1	cosm. const.
negative kin. energy	w < -1	phantom

- ► In general, the equation of state will vary with time.
- As a first approximation

$$w = w_0 + w_1 z$$

 $w = w_0 + w_1 (a-1)$

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- This matter component, denoted dark energy or quintessence, has properties similar to the cosm. constant but
- 1. it **fluctuates** at large scale
- 2. is composed of particles of microscopical mass

$$H\hbar = 10^{-32} eV$$

(the energy of a particle with Compton wavelength is equal to the horizon scale 3000 Mpc !)

3. gives an expansion different from the cosm. constant, and therefore in principle **observable** with the same methods as above

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► For instance, if the potential is an exponential

$$V(\phi) = \exp(-\mu\phi)$$

the scale factor grows, when the dark energy is dominating, as a power law

$$a\sim t^{p=rac{3}{\mu^2}}$$

instead of as an exponential (as for Λ), just as a perfect fluid with **constant** equation of state

$$w=\frac{2}{3p}-1$$

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In general, of course, w = w(z).

The crucial point is that a scalar field does not cluster because its "sound speed"

$$c_s^2 = \frac{\delta p}{\delta \rho}$$

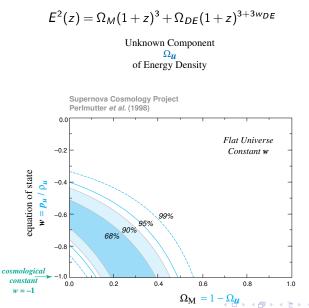
is equal to the speed of light. That is, its own pressure resists gravitational collapse. Perturbing the Klein-Gordon equation in Fourier space:

$$\ddot{\varphi} + 2H\dot{\varphi} + c_s^2k^2\varphi + a^2U''\varphi = 0$$

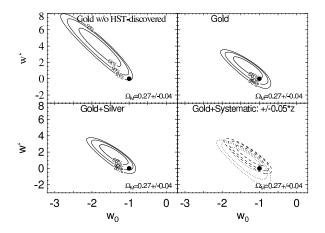
At small scales, k dominates and the solution for φ oscillates acoustically around zero instead of growing. Therefore, a scalar field is a good candidate for dark energy.

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Repeat the SNIa fit with



 $\equiv \mathbf{b}$



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