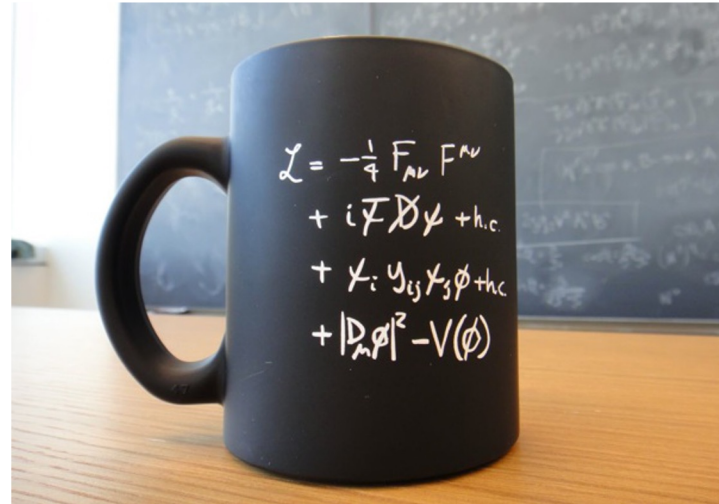
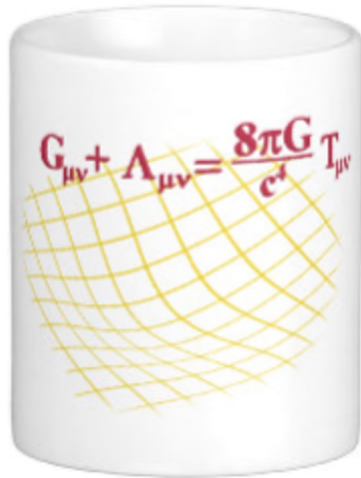
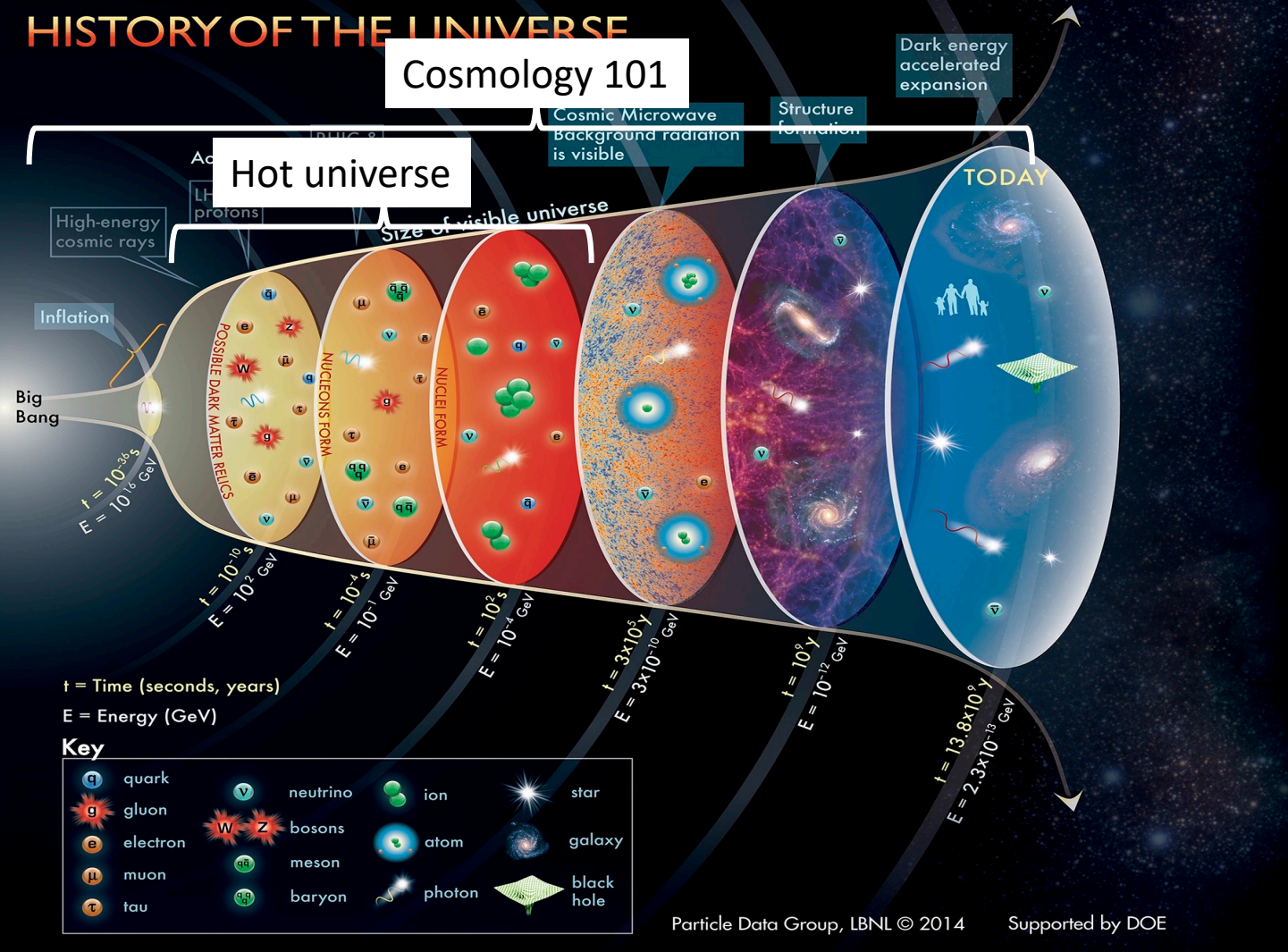


2. Hot universe...



HISTORY OF THE UNIVERSE

Cosmology 101



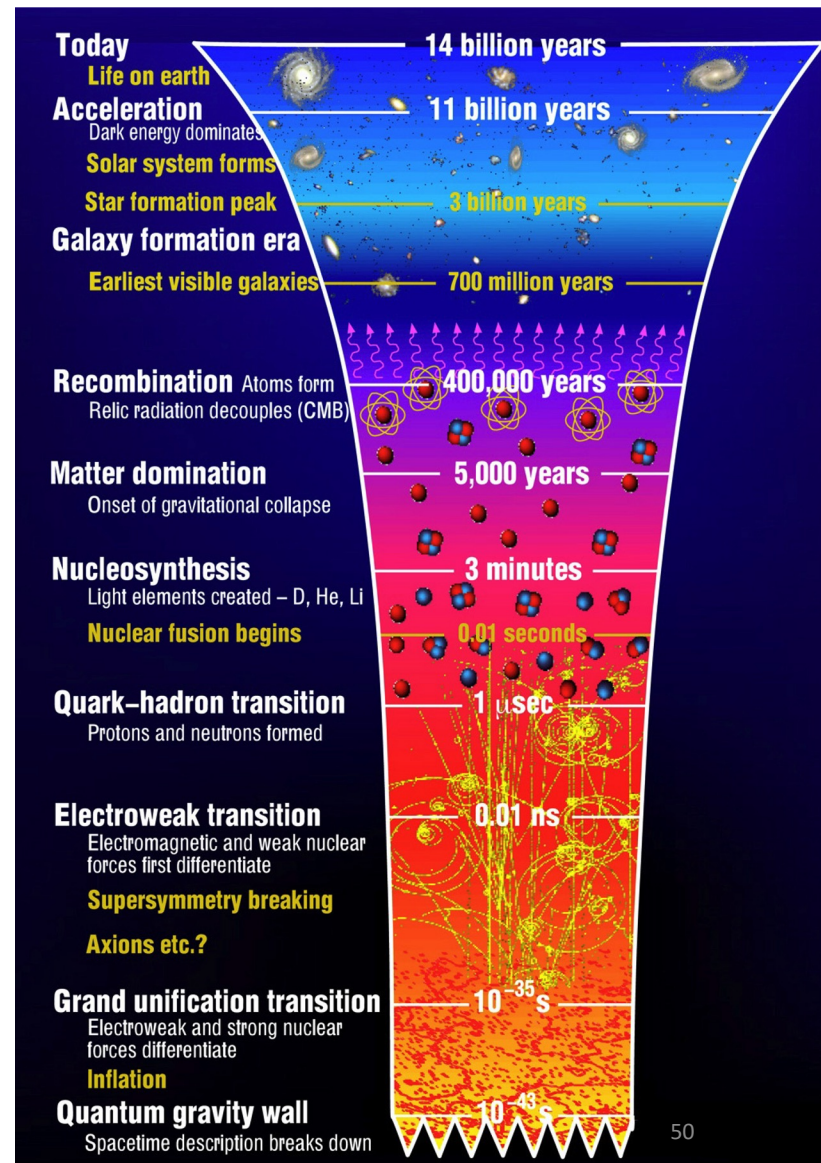
The hot universe...

The early universe was a **very hot and dense place**.

- Particle **interactions** (e.g., scattering) can happen very frequently.
- What interactions are available depends on the particle physics theory.
- But if an **interaction rate** (per particle) far **exceeds the Hubble expansion rate**,

$$\Gamma_{\text{int}} \gg H$$

the interaction can be taken to be in a **state of equilibrium**.



Classic example: weak interaction...

Say you have a gas of **ultra-relativistic** particles with **temperature** T .

- The **Weak interaction rate** per particle is estimated to be

$$\Gamma_{\text{int}} = n \langle \sigma v \rangle \sim G_F^2 T^5$$

Fermi constant
 Number density of scattering centres $n \sim T^3$
 Relative velocity $v \sim 1$
 Cross-section $\sigma \sim G_F^2 T^2$

- The Hubble expansion rate is

$$H = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} \sum_{\alpha} \rho_{\alpha}} \sim \frac{T^2}{m_{\text{planck}}}$$

Planck mass

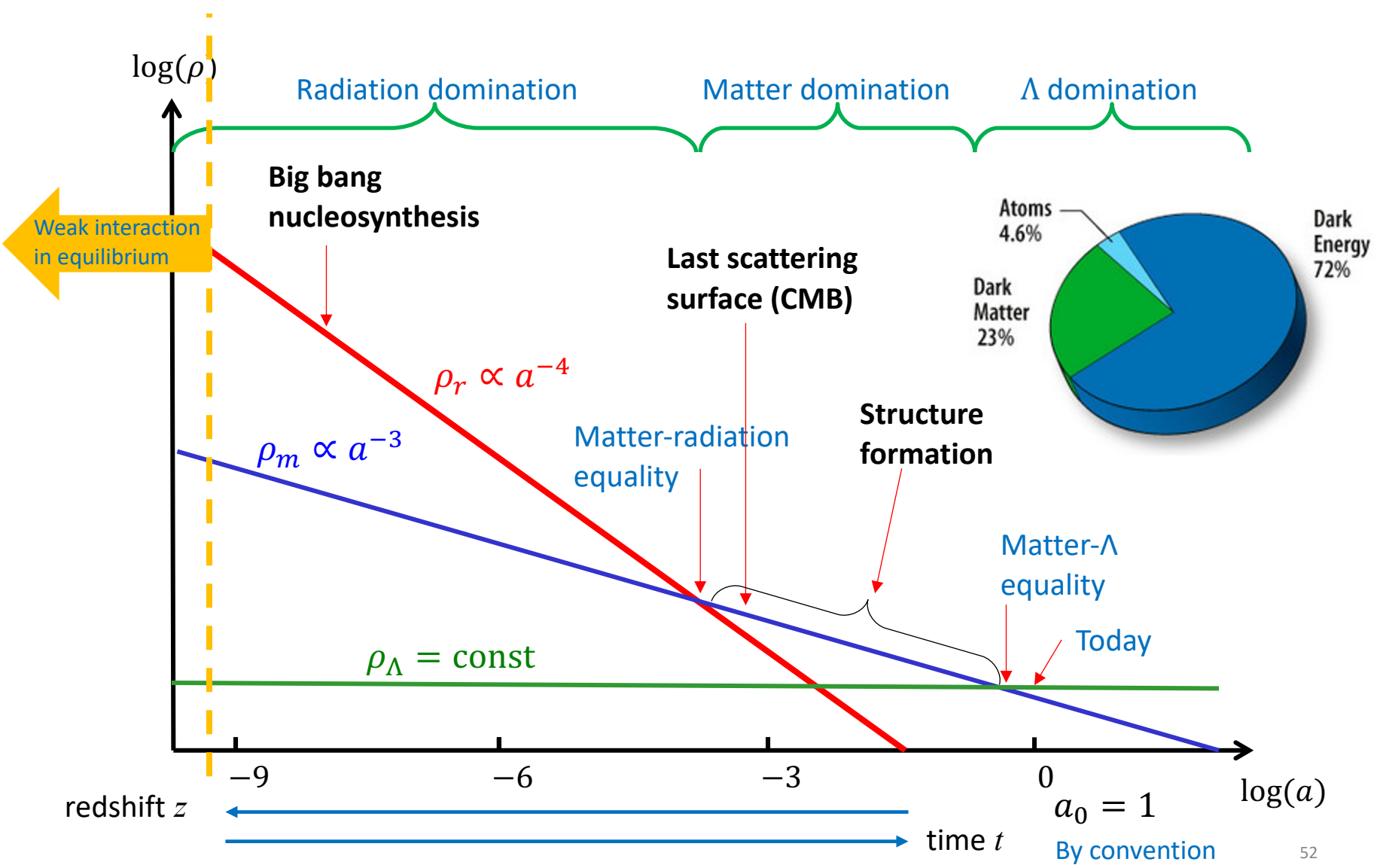
$$G_F \sim 10^{-5} \text{ GeV}^{-2}$$

$$m_{\text{pl}} \sim 10^{19} \text{ GeV}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma_{\text{int}}}{H} \sim m_{\text{planck}} G_F^2 T^3 \sim \left(\frac{T}{1 \text{ MeV}} \right)^3$$



Weak interactions are in equilibrium at $T \gg 1 \text{ MeV}$.



Equilibrium thermodynamics...

In the ideal gas limit, when an interaction is in equilibrium, all participating particles have phase space distributions described by one of the **equilibrium forms**:

$f(p)$ = Phase space
distribution

$$f_{\text{eq}}(p) = \frac{1}{\exp[(E(p) - \mu)/T] \pm 1}$$

+ Fermi-Dirac
- Bose-Einstein

μ = Chemical potential

T = Temperature

- All particles participating in that interaction have the **same temperature** T .
- Their **chemical potentials** satisfy $\sum_{\text{initial}} \mu_i = \sum_{\text{final}} \mu_f$.

Equilibrium thermodynamics...

The chemical potentials of all particles participating in an interaction in equilibrium satisfy:

$$\sum_{\text{initial}} \mu_i = \sum_{\text{final}} \mu_f$$

- Trivial condition for **elastic scattering**, e.g., $i + j \rightarrow i + j$
- For **inelastic processes**, e.g., $i + j \rightarrow k + l$, you can also call it a **chemical equilibrium**.

Antiparticle  Particle 

- If a chain of interactions like $\bar{\phi}\phi \leftrightarrow \dots \leftrightarrow \gamma\gamma$ is **all in equilibrium**, then

$$\mu_{\phi} + \mu_{\bar{\phi}} = \dots = 2\mu_{\gamma} = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \boxed{\mu_{\bar{\phi}} = -\mu_{\phi}}$$

Because the number of photons in the universe at $z \gtrsim 10^6$ is not conserved.

Equilibrium thermodynamics...

When $\mu_{\bar{\phi}} = -\mu_{\phi}$ is satisfied, the **particle-antiparticle asymmetry** is related to the chemical potential via:

$$n_{\phi} - n_{\bar{\phi}} \propto \int d^3 p [f_{\phi}(p) - f_{\bar{\phi}}(p)]$$

Particle number density –
antiparticle number density

$$\propto \frac{\mu_{\phi}}{T} \quad \text{for } \frac{\mu_{\phi}}{T} \ll 1$$

- In standard cosmology (i.e., standard model of particle physics in FLRW universe), any such asymmetry should be of the same order of magnitude as the **matter-antimatter asymmetry** $\sim 10^{-10}$.

→ Thus, unless your goal is to compute the particle-antiparticle asymmetry, it suffices for most applications to set $\mu = 0$.

Equilibrium thermodynamics...

Given its phase space distribution $f(p)$, it is straightforward to find a particle species' **bulk properties**:

Number density: $n_\alpha = \frac{g_\alpha}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3 p f_\alpha(\vec{p})$

Internal d.o.f.

Energy density: $\rho_\alpha = \frac{g_\alpha}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3 p E f_\alpha(\vec{p})$

Pressure: $P_\alpha = \frac{g_\alpha}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3 p \frac{|\vec{p}|^2}{3E} f_\alpha(\vec{p})$

$\sim T^4$ Ultra-relativistic $T \gg m$
 $\sim m(mT)^{3/2} e^{-m/T}$ Non-relativistic $T \ll m$

The energy density of a non-relativistic particle species is highly suppressed!

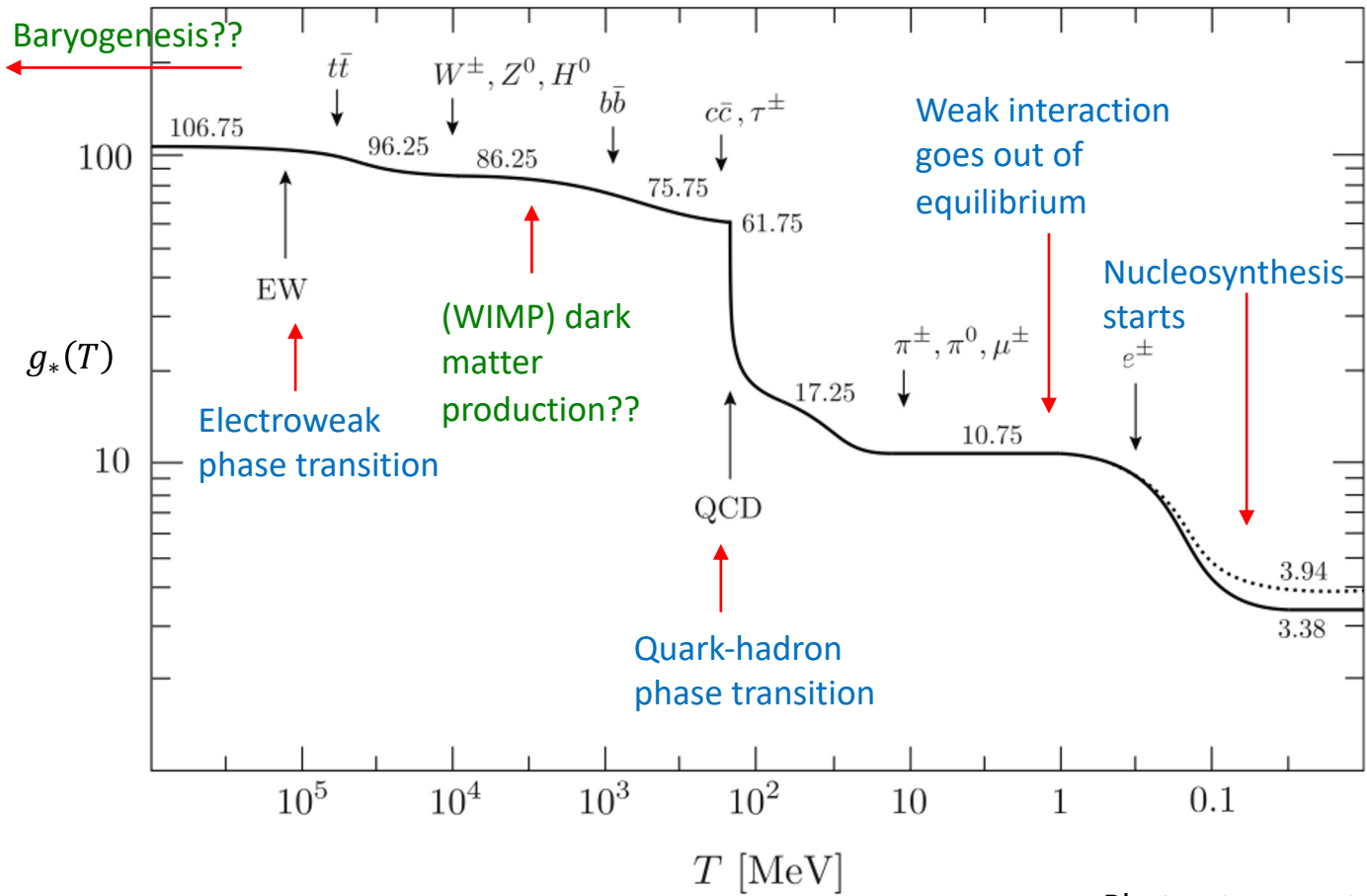
- We can therefore express the **Hubble expansion rate** in the early universe as:

$$H^2(t) = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \sum_\alpha \rho_\alpha \equiv \frac{8\pi G}{3} \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_*(T_\gamma) T_\gamma^4$$

Photon temperature

g_* is a temperature-dependent function, dominated by relativistic species, specific to a particle physics theory.

g_* of the standard model of particle physics:



What's left?

- Mainly
- Photons
 - Neutrinos

Small amounts* of

- Electrons
- Nucleons
- Nuclei

* Small means $< 10^{-9} n_\gamma$

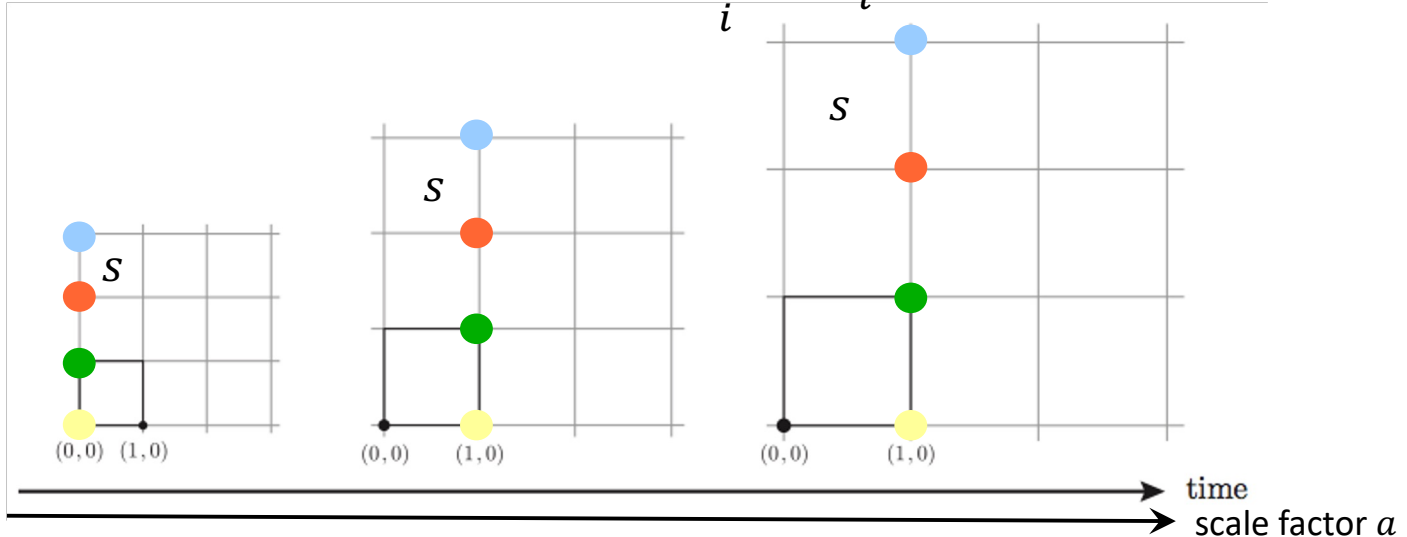


Comoving entropy density & conservation...

Where expansion is **quasi-static** so that equilibrium is maintained, the **comoving entropy density s is approximately conserved**.

Comoving entropy density

$$s = a^3 S \equiv a^3 \sum_i \frac{\rho_i + P_i}{T_i}$$



Comoving entropy and evolution of T_γ ...

As for the energy density, we can define the **entropy degrees of freedom**, g_{*s} , via

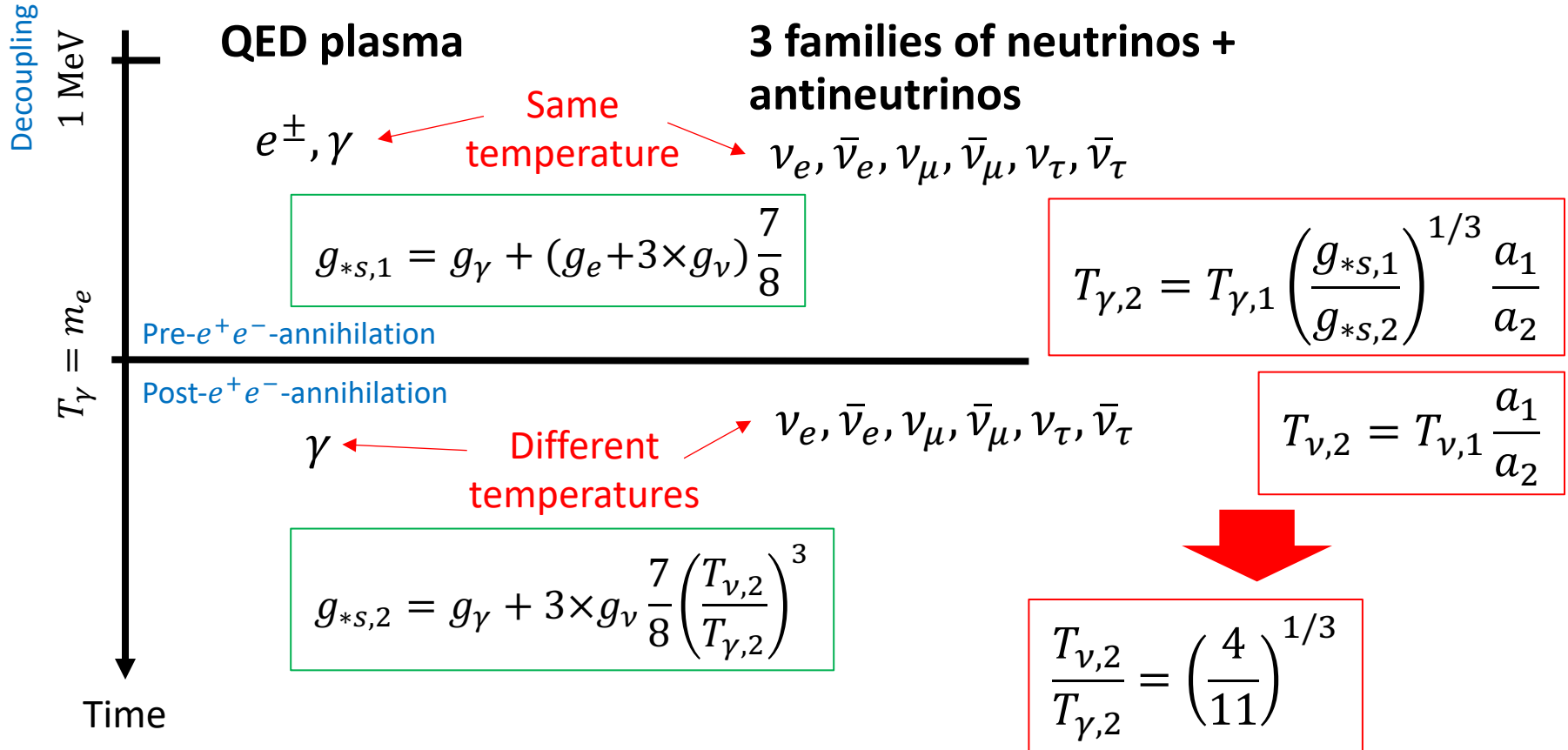
$$s_{\text{total}} = a^3 \sum_i \frac{\rho_i + P_i}{T_i} \equiv a^3 \frac{2\pi^2}{45} g_{*s}(T_\gamma) T_\gamma^3$$

g_{*s} is a temperature-dependent function, dominated by relativistic species, specific to a particle physics theory. In general, $g_{*s} \neq g_*$, except when $T_i = T_\gamma$ for all particle species i .

- Comoving entropy conservation, $s_{\text{total}} = \text{const.}$, implies

$$a^3 g_{*s}(T_\gamma) T_\gamma^3 = \text{const.} \quad \longrightarrow \quad T_\gamma \propto g_{*s}^{-1/3} a^{-1}$$

ν -to- γ temperature ratio from entropy...



Out of equilibrium...

An interaction goes **out of equilibrium** when the interaction rate per particle drops significantly below the expansion rate with time, i.e.,

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Interaction rate per particle} \rightarrow \Gamma_{\text{int}} \ll H \leftarrow \text{Hubble expansion rate} \end{array}$$

- When this happens, the interaction can **no longer change the energy density and/or the number density** of the participating particles.

Out of equilibrium...

You may also have heard of these terms:

- **Decoupling:** a particle species decouples when **all its interactions** with other particle species are out of equilibrium.
- **Freeze-out:** when **all number-changing interactions** of a particle species (e.g., annihilation/pair production) go out of equilibrium.

Out of equilibrium...

In some BSM models, an interaction may never even reach equilibrium, i.e., $\Gamma_{\text{int}} \gg H$ is never satisfied.

- **Freeze-in** of a particle species is when there are **just sufficient interactions** to make the particles in some abundance, but the interaction does not reach equilibrium rates.

Tracking out-of-equilibrium processes...

The effect of an out-of-equilibrium interaction on particle species 1 can be tracked using the **Boltzmann equation**:

$$P^\alpha \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x^\alpha} - \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^i P^\alpha P^\beta \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial P^i} = C[f_1]$$

Gravity goes in here;
“long range” interactions

Collision term
(Lorentz-invariant);
“short range”
interactions

- $f_1(x^\alpha, P^i)$ is the **1-particle phase density** defined such that the number of particles 1 in a phase space volume $dx^1 dx^2 dx^3 dP_1 dP_2 dP_3$ is

$$dN = f_1(x^\alpha, P^i) dx^1 dx^2 dx^3 dP_1 dP_2 dP_3$$

Tracking out-of-equilibrium processes...

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$$p^\alpha \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x^\alpha} - \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^i p^\alpha p^\beta \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial P^i} = C[f_1]$$

↑ Gravity goes in here; “long range” interactions
← Collision term (Lorentz-invariant); “short range” interactions

- In a homogeneous and isotropic FLRW universe, gravity causes only **expansion**.

$$f_1(x^\alpha, P^i) \rightarrow f_1(t, p)$$

↑ Physical momentum measured by a comoving observer

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial t} - H p \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{E_1} C[f_1]$$

↑ $\frac{dp}{dt} = H p$ i.e., redshifting momentum

Tracking out-of-equilibrium processes...

The effect of an out-of-equilibrium interaction on particle species 1 can be tracked using the **Boltzmann equation**:

$$p^\alpha \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x^\alpha} - \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^i p^\alpha p^\beta \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial p^i} = C[f_1]$$

Collision term
(Lorentz-invariant);
"short range"
interactions

- **The collision term** for e.g., $1 + 2 \rightarrow 3 + 4$

9D phase space integral

$$C[f_1] = \frac{1}{2} \int \prod_{i=2}^4 \frac{d^3 p_i}{(2\pi)^3 2E_i} (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(P_1 + P_2 - P_3 - P_4) |M|^2$$

$$\times [f_3 f_4 (1 \pm f_1)(1 \pm f_2) - f_1 f_2 (1 \pm f_3)(1 \pm f_4)]$$

Energy-momentum
conservation

Matrix
element

Quantum
statistical factors

How phase space density evolves when $C[f]=0$.

When there are **no collisions**, then the only thing about a particle that can change is its physical **momentum due to redshift**.

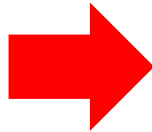
$$p \propto a^{-1}$$

- It is thus useful to define a non-redshifting momentum that is constant in time.

$$q \equiv ap$$

- Then, $f_1(t, p) \rightarrow f_1(t, q)$, and Boltzmann equation becomes:

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial t} = 0$$



The phase space density $f_1(t, q)$ remains constant in time when there are no collisions.

Full-momentum or not?

Depending on the problem at hand, you **may or may not** need to solve the **full momentum-dependent** Boltzmann equation in its full glory.

- Problems that require it include:
 - Precision neutrino decoupling/ N_{eff} (density matrix)
 - Light sterile neutrino thermalisation (density matrix)
 - Freeze-in.
- Problems for which it is perhaps not really necessary include:
 - WIMP freeze-out
 - Recombination and photon decoupling
 - Standard thermal leptogenesis
 - ...

Momentum-integrated Boltzmann equation...

Where full-momentum dependence is unnecessary, we can **integrate the Boltzmann equation in momentum** to form an equation of motion for the **number density**:

$$\frac{g_1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3p \left[\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial t} - Hp \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial p} \right] = \frac{g_1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3p \frac{1}{E_1} C[f_1]$$



Still very ugly

$$\frac{dn_1}{dt} + 3Hn_1 = \frac{g_1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3p \frac{1}{E_1} C[f_1]$$

Simplifications...

We can often make several simplifying assumptions to make the collision integral easier to compute.

- Ignore quantum statistics factors and assume **Maxwell-Boltzmann statistics**, i.e., assume the equilibrium distribution takes the form:

$$f_{\text{eq}} = e^{-\frac{E_i}{T}}$$

- Assume a **common temperature T** for the participating species (justified by elastic scattering processes being in equilibrium).
- Assume a phase space density of the form:

$$f_i = \frac{n_i}{n_i^{\text{eq}}} e^{-\frac{E_i}{T}}$$

Simplifications...

Here's the **simplified collision integral**:

$$\frac{g_1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3p \frac{1}{E_1} C[f_1] = -n_1^{\text{eq}} n_2^{\text{eq}} \langle \sigma v \rangle \left[\frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^{\text{eq}} n_2^{\text{eq}}} - \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_4^{\text{eq}} n_4^{\text{eq}}} \right]$$

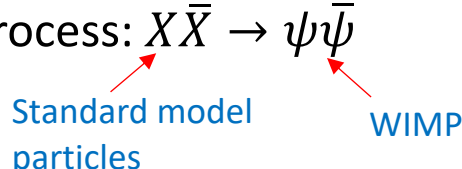
Thermally-averaged cross section

$$\langle \sigma v \rangle \equiv \frac{1}{n_1^{\text{eq}} n_2^{\text{eq}}} \int \prod_{i=1}^4 \frac{d^3 p_i}{(2\pi)^3 2E_i} (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(P_1 + P_2 - P_3 - P_4) |M|^2 e^{\frac{-E_1 - E_2}{T}}$$

- Its advantage is that the thermally-averaged cross section is now just a **function of temperature**, rather than a function time.
- It can be pre-computed.

Application 1: WIMP freeze-out...

WIMP = **weakly-interacting massive particle**, a generic **cold dark matter** candidate.

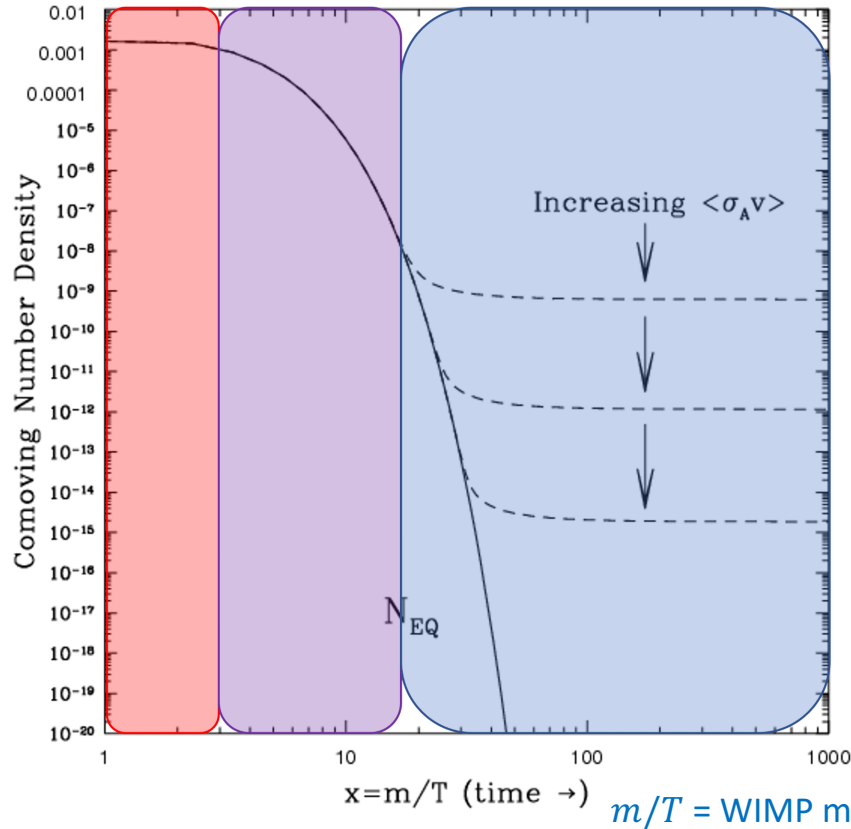
- Generic production process: $X\bar{X} \rightarrow \psi\bar{\psi}$


Standard model particles WIMP

- Standard model particles X can be assumed to be in thermal equilibrium.
- Some equilibrium elastic scattering, e.g., $\psi X \rightarrow \psi X$, is also likely present.
- The **integrated Boltzmann equation**:

$$\frac{dn_{\text{DM}}}{dt} + 3Hn_{\text{DM}} = -\langle\sigma v\rangle(n_{\text{DM}}^2 - n_{\text{eq}}^2)$$

Application 1: WIMP freeze-out...



Solution of the integrated Boltzmann equation for the **comoving WIMP number density**:

$$N_{DM} \equiv a^3 n_{DM}$$

- For 10 GeV to 1 TeV mass WIMPs, the solution translates roughly to:

$$\Omega_{DM} \sim 0.2 \left(\frac{0.7}{h}\right)^2 \left(\frac{3 \times 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}}{\langle\sigma v\rangle}\right)$$

Application 2: Recombination...

At $T > O(1)$ eV, **Compton scattering** $\gamma e^- \rightarrow \gamma e^-$ keeps photons and **free electrons** (i.e., not in an atom) in equilibrium.


→ At these times, the universe is opaque to photons.

- But the **free electron density** n_e is governed by:

Recombination



Neutral hydrogen


$$\frac{dn_e}{dt} + 3Hn_e = -n_e^{\text{eq}} n_p^{\text{eq}} \langle \sigma v \rangle \left[\frac{n_e n_p}{n_e^{\text{eq}} n_p^{\text{eq}}} - \frac{n_H}{n_H^{\text{eq}}} \right]$$

Boltzmann equation for n_e

- When n_e is so low that the photon scattering rate drops below the Hubble rate, the universe becomes transparent to photons → **Cosmic microwave background**

Take-home message...

In the early universe, an interaction is:

- **In equilibrium** when the interaction rate per particle **far exceeds** the expansion rate:

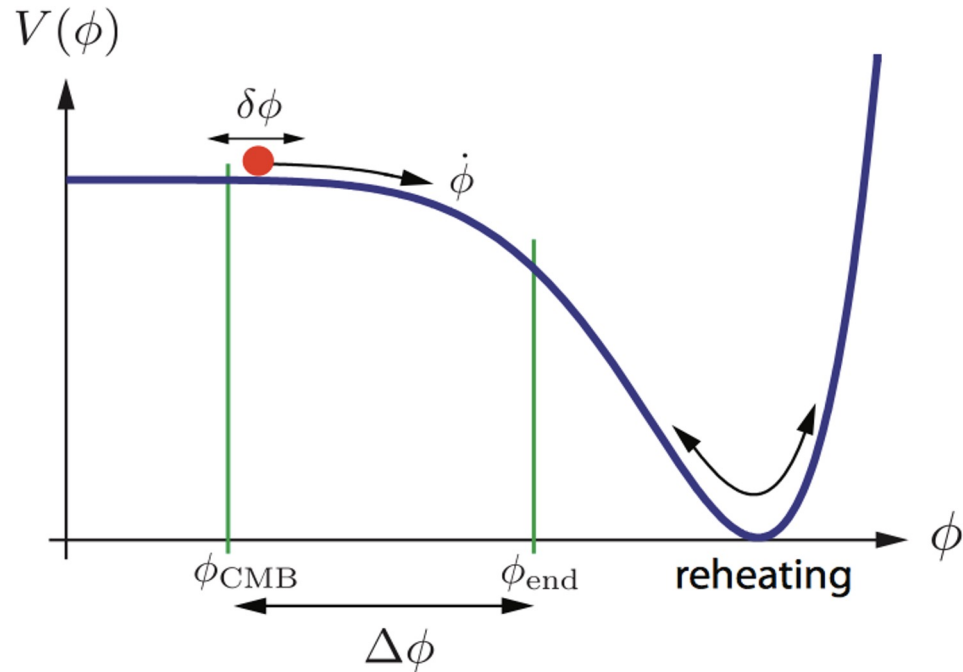
$$\Gamma_{\text{int}} \gg H$$

- **Totally out of equilibrium** when the **opposite condition** ensues:

$$\Gamma_{\text{int}} \ll H$$

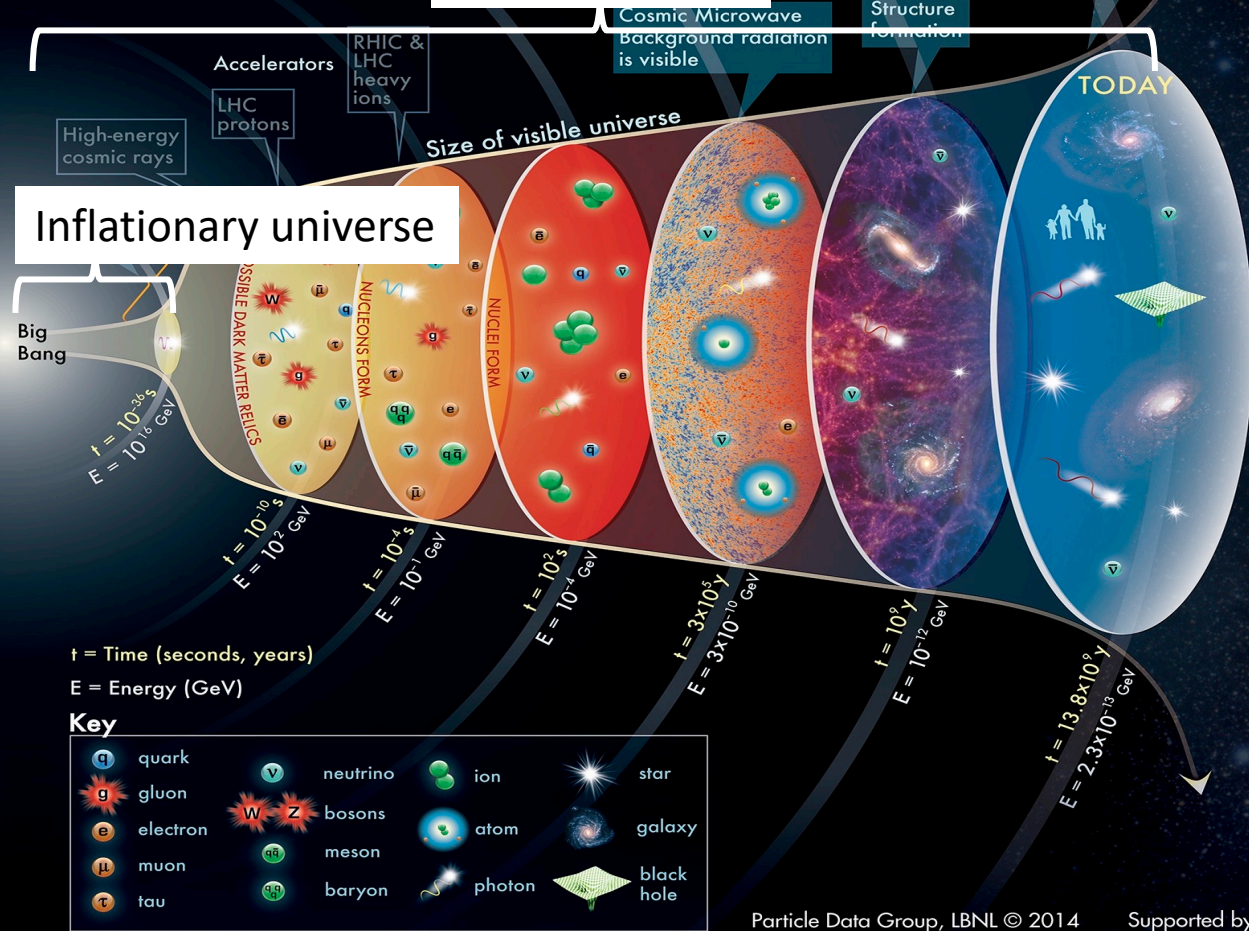
- We use the **Boltzmann equation** to determine how interactions that may not be in equilibrium at all times affect the **abundances** (i.e., number densities) of the participating particle species.

3. Inflationary universe...



HISTORY OF THE UNIVERSE

Cosmology 101



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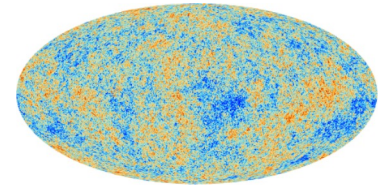
Supported by DOE

Motivation...

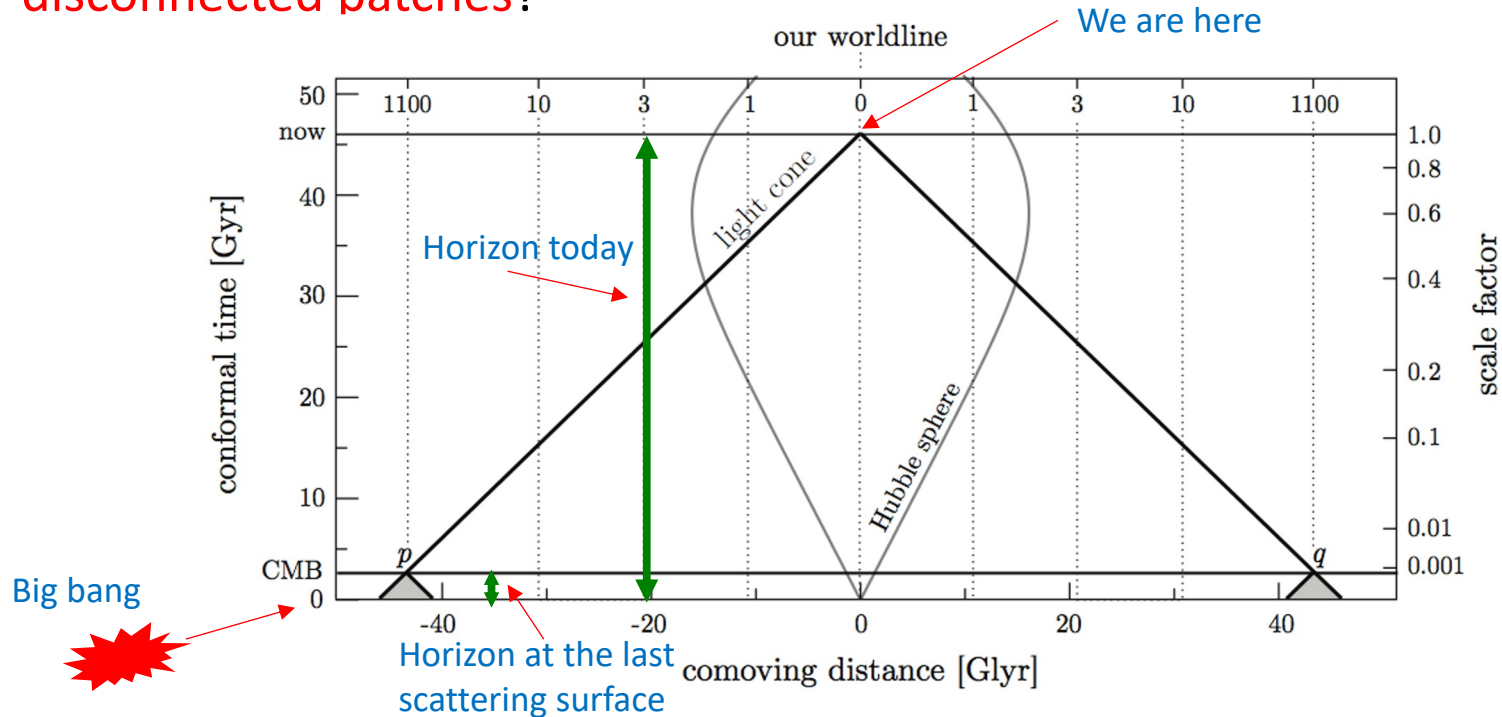
Standard hot big bang (what we've discussed so far) is consistent with observational data.

- Nonetheless, three (arguably philosophical) puzzles motivate the introduction of **inflation** in cosmology:
 - The **horizon** problem
 - The **flatness** problem
 - The **relic** problem

Motivation 1: the horizon problem...



Why is the CMB **so uniform** even though it is made up of **many causally disconnected patches**?

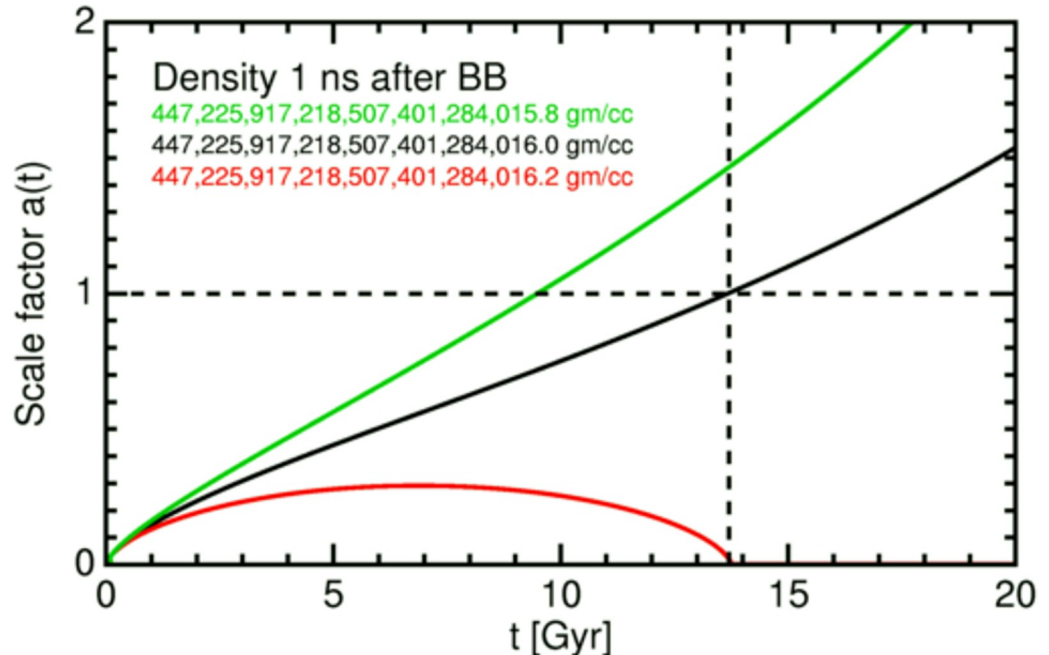


Motivation 2: the flatness problem...

The universe **appears to have a flat spatial geometry today**; $|\Omega_K| < 0.01$ from observations.

- But in order to appear flat today, the amount of **fine-tuning** required at Planck time (i.e., at $T \sim M_{\text{planck}}$; $t \sim 10^{-44}$ s) is **one part in 10^{60}** .

→ **How did that happen?**

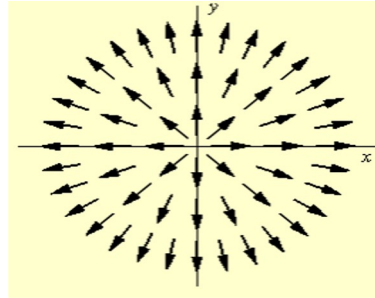
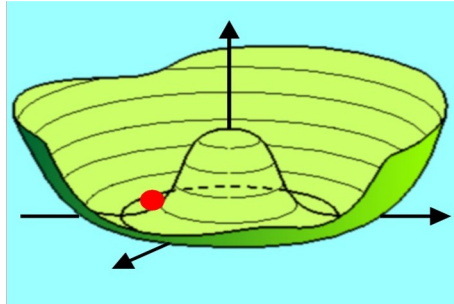


One part in 10^{24} fine-tuning already at 1 ns post BB....

Motivation 3: the relic problem...

Sometimes called the **monopole problem**: many BSM theories (GUTs in particular) predict **topological defects** from symmetry breaking (monopoles, strings, domain walls, etc.)

Breaking of global $U(1)$



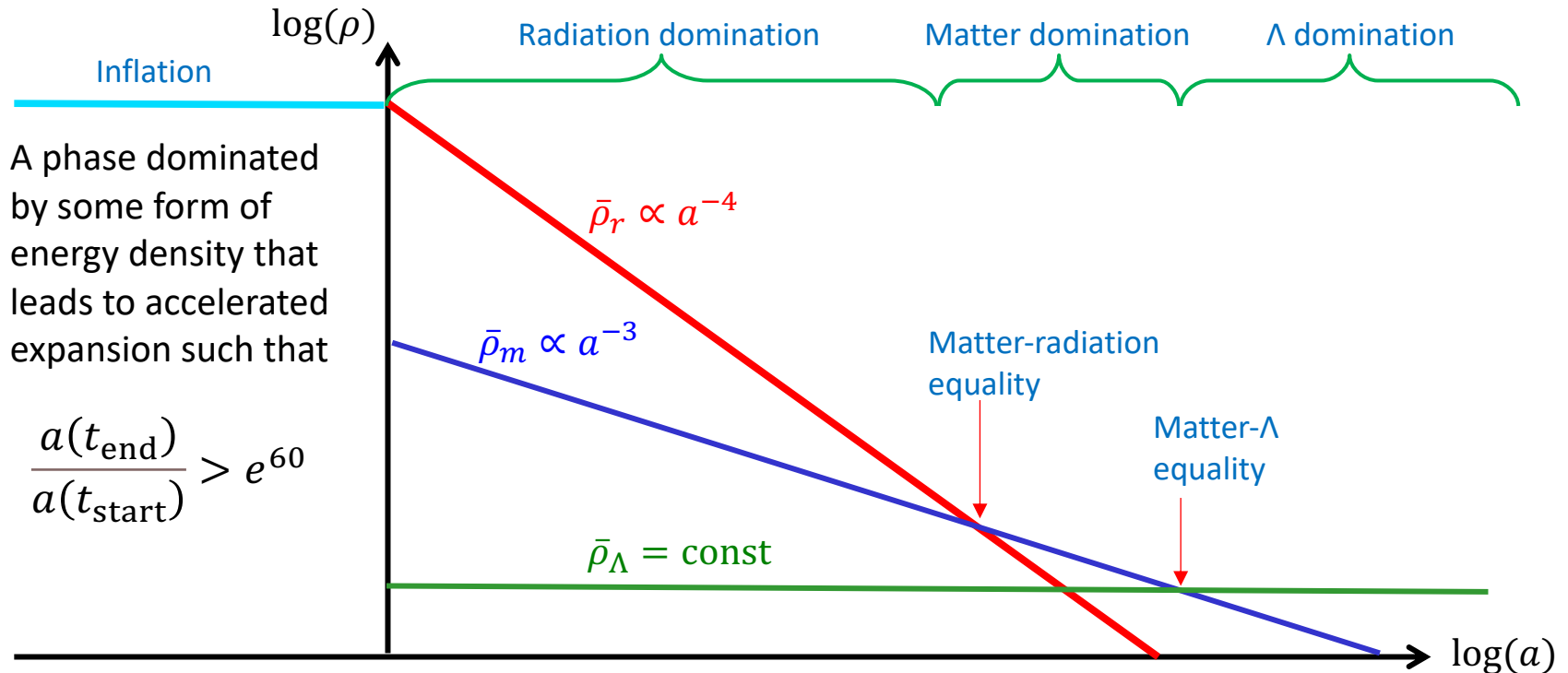
“Hole”

The minimum energy state (the rim of the Mexican hat) has a “hole” when you go around $0 \rightarrow 2\pi$: a string

- We generally expect one such defect per causally-connected region at the time of symmetry breaking \rightarrow must be **many of such defects** in the visible universe today.
- The problem: **Why haven't we seen these defects?**

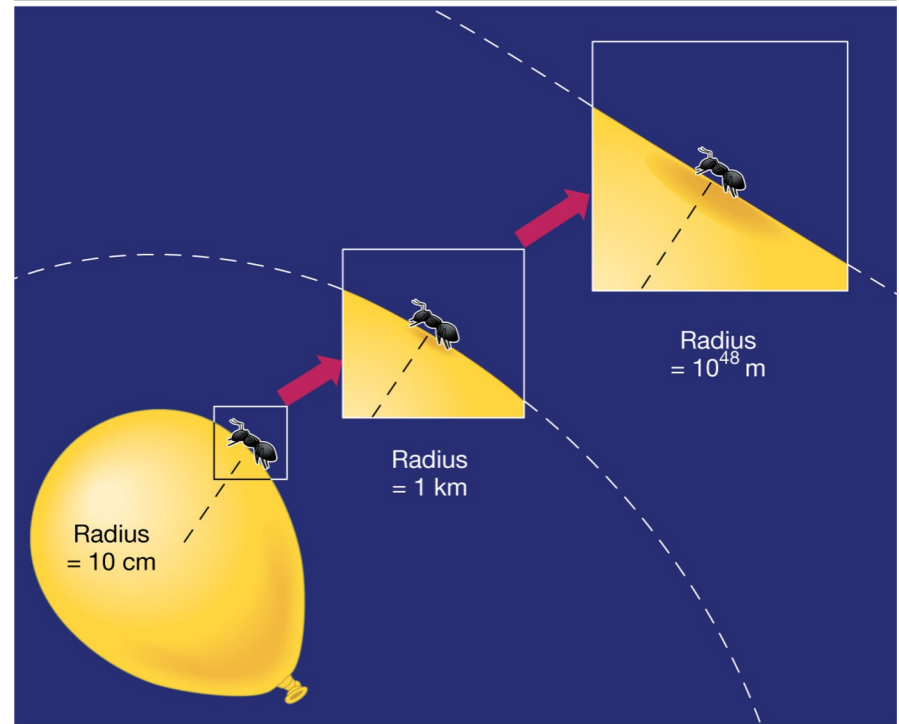
Inflation is the solution...

Introduce a phase of accelerated expansion before radiation domination.

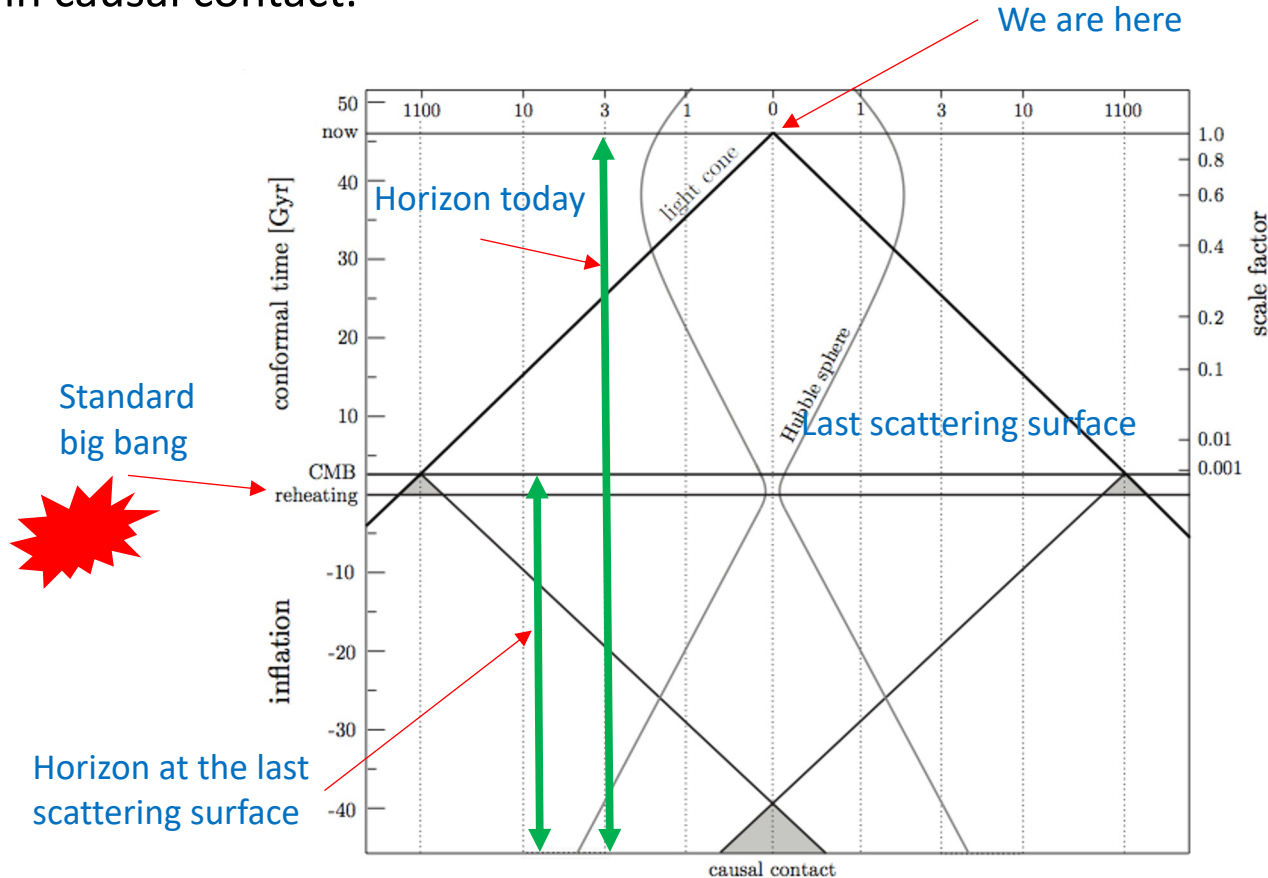


Inflation is the solution...

- The **flatness problem** is solved because exponential expansion **stretches the radius of curvature** of any initial non-flat geometry, so that locally space looks flat.
- The **relic problem** is solved, because the exponential **expansion of space dilutes the abundance of defects**, provided inflation occurs after their production



- The **horizon problem** is solved because the horizon can be made **arbitrarily large**, so that the part of the last scattering we observe was in some distant past in causal contact.



Implementing inflation using a scalar field...

How do you implement inflation? We can't use vacuum energy, because once Λ dominates, you cannot ever get back to radiation/matter domination.

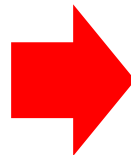
- Whatever drive inflation **must be dynamical**: a **scalar field** works.
 - A spatially homogeneous real scalar field ϕ has **energy density** and **pressure** given by:

$$\rho_\phi = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)^2 + V(\phi) \quad P_\phi = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)^2 - V(\phi) \quad \text{From } T_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{2}{\sqrt{-g}} \frac{\partial(\sqrt{-g}\mathcal{L})}{\partial g^{\mu\nu}}$$

- If the **potential exceeds the kinetic term**, i.e., $V(\phi) \gg (\partial\phi/\partial t)^2$, then

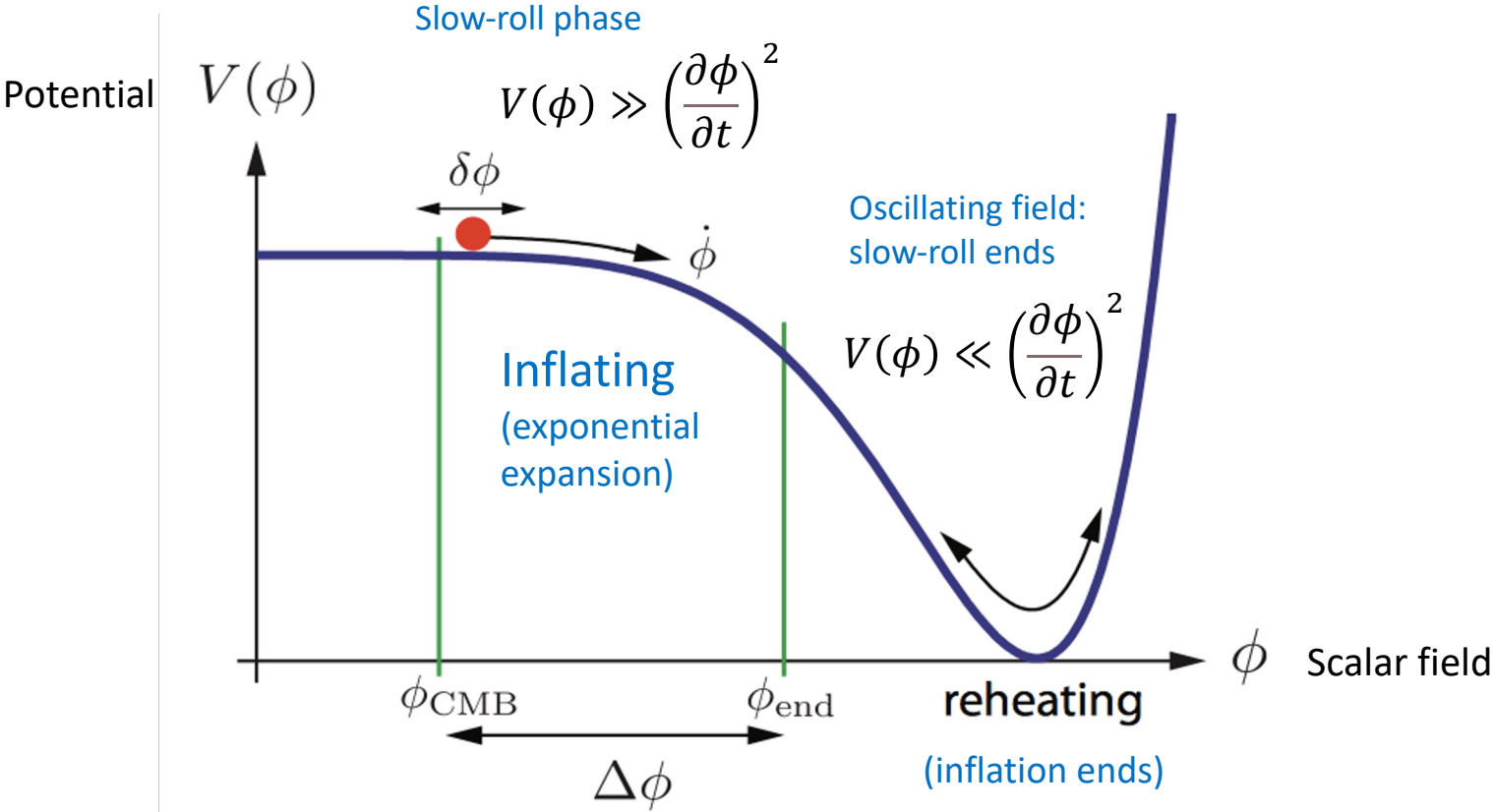
Equation of state parameter for the scalar field.

$$w_\phi = \frac{P_\phi}{\rho_\phi} \simeq -1$$



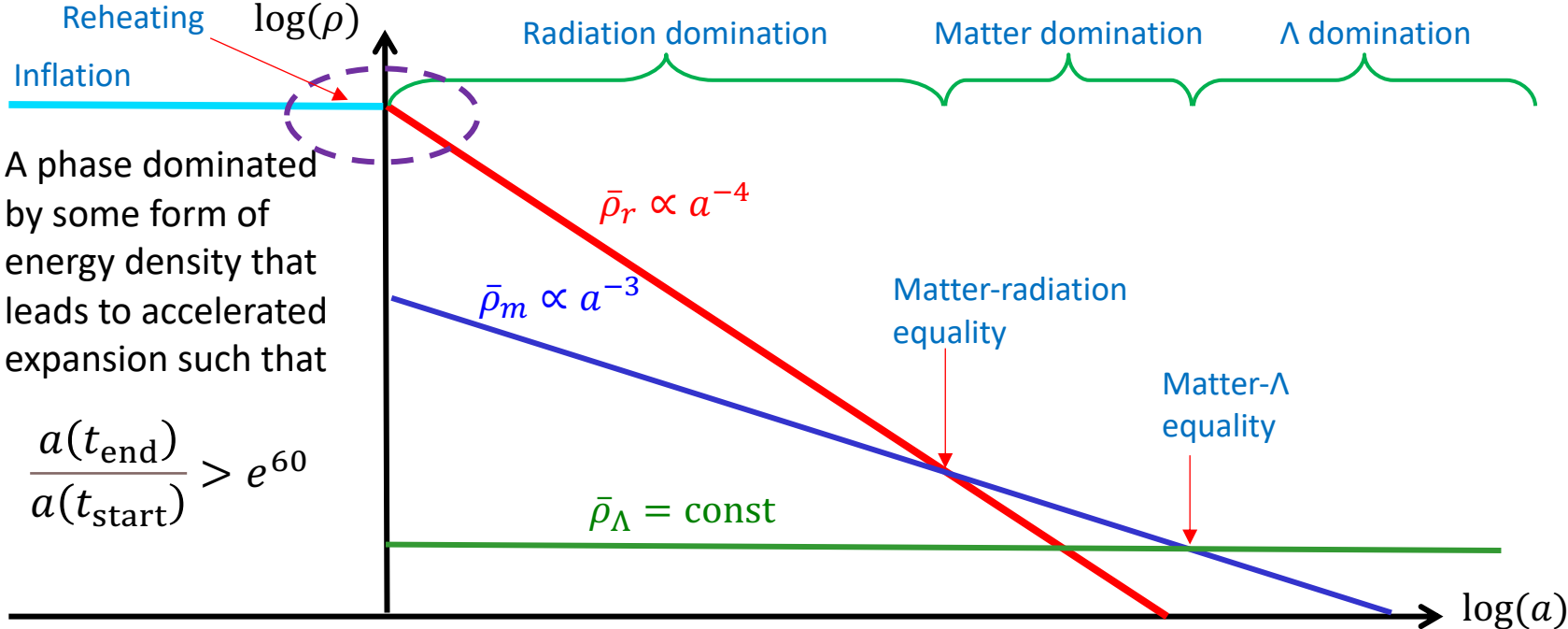
The scalar field will drive a phase of **exponential expansion** if its energy density dominates over everything else.

The basic picture of slow-roll inflation...



After inflation: reheating...

Not well-understood, but the idea is to have the scalar field **decay** and **convert** its energy into relativistic (standard model) particles.



Take-home message...

- Inflation solves a number of problems by postulating a phase of **exponential expansion** before radiation domination.
- The simplest way to implement this idea is to use a scalar field “**slowly rolling**” down its potential.
 - Inflation ends when the scalar field reaches the bottom of the potential well and starts to oscillate.
 - When all of the energy in the scalar field has been converted into relativistic (standard model) particles somehow (via the process of **reheating**), radiation domination can begin.