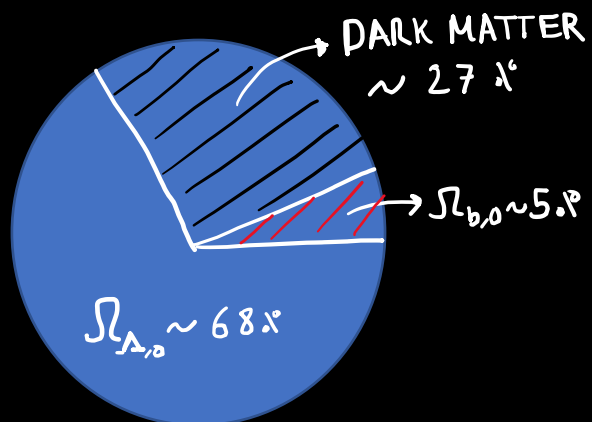


# Summary of previous class (08.09)

## THE STANDARD COSMOLOGICAL MODEL

- i) matter:  $\Omega_{m,0} h^2 \sim 0.14$
- ii) Hubble constant:  $h \sim 0.67$
- iii) curvature:  $\Omega_{k,0} \sim 0$
- iv) radiation:  $\Omega_{r,0} h^2 \sim 4.2 \times 10^{-5}$
- v) baryonic matter:  $\Omega_{b,0} h^2 \sim 0.022$
- vi) dark matter:  $\Omega_{c,0} h^2 \sim 0.12$
- vii) cosmological constant:  $\Omega_{\Lambda,0} \sim 0.68$



$$\Omega_0 = \Omega_{m,0} + \Omega_{r,0} + \Omega_{\Lambda,0} = 1$$

→ age of the Universe

$$t_0 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dz}{(1+z)H(z)} \quad \text{standard model} \quad \sim 13.8 \text{ Gyr}$$

→ comoving distance:  $\chi_e = \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{c dt}{a(t)} = \int_0^z \frac{c dz'}{H(z')}$

→ proper distance:  $l = a_e \chi_e = \frac{a_0 \chi_e}{(1+z)}$

→ angular diameter distance:  $d_A = l$

→ luminosity distance:  $d_L = a_0 \chi_e (1+z) = d_A (1+z)^2$

# Thermodynamics in the expanding Universe: the abundance of thermal relics

From the first law of thermodynamics and some elements of kinetic theory we derived some simple scaling laws valid for the background Universe (density, temperature, ... as a function of scale factor)

In this section these results with some elements of statistical mechanics and particle physics to estimate/predict the abundance of certain components in the Universe (known as thermal relics)

# Thermodynamics in the expanding Universe: the abundance of thermal relics

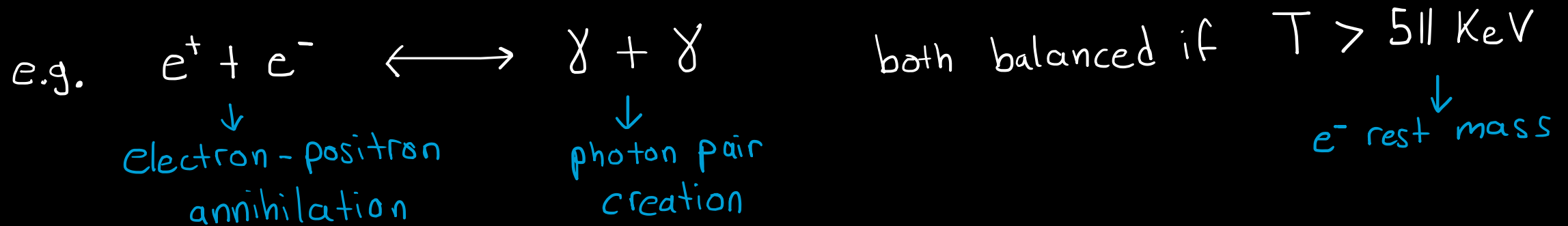
→ In a nutshell, this is how this process works:

- in the very early Universe, the temperatures/densities are sufficiently high ( $k_B T > m c^2$ ) so that particles of mass 'm' can be created and annihilated at similar rates (chemical equilibrium)

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e.g.  $e^+ + e^- \longleftrightarrow \gamma + \gamma$  both balanced if  $T > 511 \text{ KeV}$

- even if temperatures/densities drop (as the Universe expands and cools down), frequent scattering/interactions between the different particle species maintains thermal (kinetic) equilibrium for some longer time

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e.g.  $\gamma + e^- \longrightarrow \gamma + e^-$  Compton scattering

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- chemical equilibrium breaks (chemical decoupling)
- scattering processes keep thermal eq.
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Equilibrium  
Thermodynamics  
↓  
Out-of-equilibrium  
Thermodynamics

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Out-of-equilibrium Thermodynamics

→ The transition towards non-equilibrium (decoupling) is roughly given by:

$$\Gamma \equiv n \langle \sigma v \rangle = H$$

interaction rate  
(# of interactions per unit time)

number density

average interaction cross section times pair relative velocity

rate of expansion of the Universe



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→ The transition towards non-equilibrium (decoupling) is roughly given by:

i)  $\Gamma \equiv n \langle \sigma v \rangle > H$  (interactions are frequent enough to keep eq.)

ii)  $\Gamma \equiv n \langle \sigma v \rangle < H$  (interactions cease to keep eq.)

⇒ particle species decouples from others keeping its comoving density frozen

# Thermodynamics in the expanding Universe: the abundance of thermal relics

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Equilibrium  
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→ The transition towards non-equilibrium (decoupling) is roughly given by:

$$\boxed{\Gamma \equiv n \langle \sigma v \rangle = H} \rightarrow \text{related to abundance of species}$$

→ The physics around decoupling is challenging. It is needed to calculate the final (relic) abundance of stable particles (thermal relics)

# Particles in thermodynamic equilibrium

→ In the very very early Universe all particles were in thermal equilibrium, we then review some fundamentals of statistical mechanics in equilibrium that we need to use

# Particles in thermodynamic equilibrium

Phase space distribution function  $\equiv$  phase space density

$dN = f(\vec{x}, \vec{p}, t) d^3\vec{x} d^3\vec{p} \equiv$  # of particles with positions and momenta within the phase space volume  $d^3\vec{x} d^3\vec{p}$  centred at  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{p}$

$\rightarrow$  Because of the cosmological principle:  $f(\vec{x}, \vec{p}, t) \rightarrow f(p, t)$

$\rightarrow$  Because the system is in thermodynamic eq:  $f(p, t) \rightarrow f(p)$

$$f(p) = \frac{g}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} \left[ \frac{1}{e^{(E(p) - \mu)/k_B T} \pm 1} \right]$$

general form of  
the equilibrium distribution  
function

# Particles in thermodynamic equilibrium

Phase space distribution function in equilibrium

$$f(\rho) = \frac{g}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} \left[ \frac{1}{e^{(E(\rho) - \mu)/k_B T} \pm 1} \right]$$

→  $g \equiv$  internal degrees of freedom  
(degeneracy factor)

→ molecules: vibration, rotation ...

– elementary particles: spin

(degeneracy in counting particles with the same energy  $E(\rho)$  but different spin)

→ e.g.  $e^-$ :  $g_e = 2$

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$$\rightarrow E(p) = m^2 c^4 + p^2 c^2$$

energy-momentum  
relation

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→  $E(p) = m^2 c^4 + p^2 c^2$  energy-momentum relation

→  $\frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} \equiv$  minimum phase space volume (due to Heisenberg's uncertainty principle, the phase space volume must be measured in units of  $h^3 = (2\pi\hbar)^3$ )

# Particles in thermodynamic equilibrium

Phase space distribution function in equilibrium

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→  $\mu \equiv$  chemical potential

energy absorbed or released during interactions with other particle species that change the particle number

$\mu$  should be conserved in an interaction to have chemical equilibrium



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Bremsstrahlung radiation



$$\mu_e + \mu_p = \mu_e + \mu_p + \mu_\gamma$$

⇒  $\mu_\gamma = 0$  → in general for all interactions

→  $g \equiv$  internal degrees of freedom (degeneracy factor)

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e.g. ←

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Bremsstrahlung radiation



$$\mu_e + \mu_p = \mu_e + \mu_p + \mu_\gamma$$

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↳ needed also to have Planck's law

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→ in brackets  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} +1 \text{ Fermi-Dirac statistics (fermions)} \\ -1 \text{ Bose-Einstein statistics (bosons)} \end{array} \right.$

Non-relativistic limit

$$E \sim mc^2 \gg k_B T$$

→ Quantum statistics reduces to Classical statistics when:  $\exp\left[\frac{(E-\mu)}{k_B T}\right] \gg 1$

# Particles in thermodynamic equilibrium

Phase space distribution function in equilibrium

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→ Non-relativistic limit  $mc^2 \gg k_B T \Rightarrow$  Maxwell Boltzmann distribution  $f_{MB}(p)$   
(if  $\mu = 0$ )



# Particles in thermodynamic equilibrium

Macroscopic thermodynamic variables from the distribution function

$$\rightarrow \text{number density} \equiv n = \int f(p) d^3 \vec{p} \quad (\text{mass density} \equiv mn)$$

$$\rightarrow \text{energy density} \equiv \rho c^2 = \int E(p) f(p) d^3 \vec{p}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Pressure} \equiv P = \frac{1}{3} n \langle |\vec{p}| |\vec{v}| \rangle = \frac{1}{3} n \left\langle \frac{p^2 c^2}{E} \right\rangle = \int \left( \frac{p^2 c^2}{3E} \right) f(p) d^3 \vec{p}$$

Notes:

$$i) d^3 \vec{p} = 4\pi p^2 dp \quad (\text{isotropic Universe})$$

$$ii) \text{ change of variable from 'p' to 'E': } E^2 = m^2 c^4 + p^2 c^2 \quad \Rightarrow 2E dE = 2c^2 p dp$$

$$\Rightarrow p^2 dp = p \left( \frac{E}{c^2} dE \right) = \left( \frac{E^2 - m^2 c^4}{c^2} \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{E dE}{c^2} \right)$$

iii) "natural" units used frequently for this area of cosmology:

$$c = \hbar = k_B = 1$$

# Particles in thermodynamic equilibrium

iii) "natural" units used frequently for this area of cosmology:

$$c = \hbar = k_B = 1$$

→ They simplify mathematical expressions

→ Without practice, it can be hard to recover the physical dimensions at the end of a calculation

# Particles in thermodynamic equilibrium

iii) "natural" units used frequently for this area of cosmology:

$$c = \hbar = k_B = 1$$

→ For this part of the course:

1) masses: commonly written in eV (electronvolt: kinetic energy gained by an electron in an electric potential of one Volt =  $q_e \times 1 \text{ Volt}$ )

since  $E_{\text{rest}} = m c^2$

$$\Rightarrow m = \frac{E_{\text{rest}}}{c^2} \Rightarrow \text{units of } m \equiv \text{eV}/c^2$$

mass-eV:  $1 \text{ eV}/c^2 = 1.78 \times 10^{-36} \text{ Kg}$

If  $c=1$  how do I convert the mass that appears in an equation in eV into Kg?  $1 \text{ KeV} = 10^3 \text{ eV}$

$$m_e = 511 \text{ KeV} \rightarrow \text{multiply by } \frac{1}{c^2} = 1.78 \times 10^{-36} \text{ Kg/eV}$$

$$\Rightarrow m_e \sim 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ Kg}$$



# Particles in thermodynamic equilibrium

iii) "natural" units used frequently for this area of cosmology:

$$c = \hbar = k_B = 1$$

→ For this part of the course:

2) Temperature: commonly written in eV

Since  $E_{\text{thermal}} = k_B T \Rightarrow T = \frac{E_{\text{thermal}}}{c^2}$  units of  $T \equiv \text{eV}/k_B$

temp-eV:  $1 \text{eV}/k_B = 1.16 \times 10^4 \text{K}$

If  $k_B = 1$  how do I convert the temperature that appears in an equation in eV into K?

→  $1 \text{MeV} = 10^6 \text{eV}$

$T = 30 \text{MeV} \rightarrow$  multiply by  $1/k_B = 1.16 \times 10^4 \text{K/eV}$

$\Rightarrow T \sim 3.48 \times 10^{11} \text{K}$

# Particles in thermodynamic equilibrium

iii) "natural" units used frequently for this area of cosmology:

$$c = \hbar = k_B = 1$$

→ For this part of the course:

3) time commonly written in eV

→ It comes from  $E = h\nu \Rightarrow \nu = \frac{E}{h}$  so frequencies =  $\frac{1}{\text{time}}$  can be written as energies if  $h = 1$

$$\text{time-eV: } \hbar/\text{eV} = 6.6 \times 10^{-16} \text{ s}$$

If  $k_B = 1$  how do I convert the time that appears in an equation in eV into s?

$$t = 10^{21} \text{ MeV}^{-1} \rightarrow \text{multiply by } \hbar = 6.6 \times 10^{-16} \text{ s} \cdot \text{eV}$$

$$\Rightarrow t \sim 0.66 \text{ s}$$