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**Lecture Notes**  
**on**  
**Cosmology**

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Karlsruhe Institute of Technology

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## Preface

The following notes are based on the lecture course Cosmology

These notes are still under development and will continuously be improved. If anything is unclear, or if you spot a typo, please send me an email to [felix.kahlhoefer@kit.edu](mailto:felix.kahlhoefer@kit.edu).

# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Units and Conventions

Will use natural units :  $c = \hbar = k_B = 1$

$$\Rightarrow [\text{mass}] = [\text{momentum}] = [\text{temperature}] = [\text{energy}] = \text{GeV}$$

Conversion:  $1 \text{ GeV} = 1.8 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{ g} = 1.2 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ K}$

$$[\text{time}] = [\text{distance}] = [\text{energy}^{-1}] = \text{GeV}^{-1}$$

Conversion:  $1 \text{ GeV}^{-1} = 2.0 \cdot 10^{-14} \text{ cm} = 6.6 \cdot 10^{-25} \text{ s}$

$\Rightarrow$  Newton's constant of gravity:

$$G = 6.67 \cdot 10^{-11} \frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{kg} \cdot \text{s}^2} = 6.71 \cdot 10^{-39} \text{ GeV}^{-2}$$

Convenient to write  $G = M_{\text{pl}}^{-2}$  with

$M_{\text{pl}} = 1.22 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ GeV} \quad (\text{Planck mass})$

Will sometimes need astrophysical units

$$1 \text{ pc} = 3.1 \cdot 10^{18} \text{ cm} \quad 1 M_{\odot} = 1.99 \cdot 10^{30} \text{ kg}$$

## 1.2 The present universe

**Observations:** • At sufficiently large scales, universe is homogenous (same everywhere) & isotropic (same in every direction)

- The universe expands

↳ galaxies “move away” from us

$$\Rightarrow \text{Doppler effect: } \underbrace{\lambda_{\text{ab}}}_{\text{absorption}} > \underbrace{\lambda_{\text{em}}}_{\text{emission}}$$

$$\text{Define redshift } z = \frac{\lambda_{\text{ab}}}{\lambda_{\text{em}}} - 1$$

↳ Hubble's law:

$$z \stackrel{z \ll 1}{\approx} H_0 \cdot r$$

$$\text{with Hubble constant } H_0 \approx 67 \pm 1 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{s} \cdot \text{Mpc}}$$

Convenient to define

$$h = \frac{H_0}{100 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{s} \cdot \text{Mpc}}} = 0.67 \pm 0.01 \quad \Rightarrow h^2 \approx 0.5$$

**Note:**  $[H_0] = [\text{rate}] = [\text{time}^{-1}]$

$\Rightarrow H_0^{-1} \approx 1.4 \cdot 10^{10}$  yrs defines typical time scale (age of the universe)

### 1.3 Content of the universe

Universe filled with photons following (almost perfect) blackbody spectrum of temperature  $T_0 = 2.7255 \pm 0.0006$  K

↳ Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB)

$\Rightarrow$  Confirms isotropy of universe at  $< 10^{-4}$

$\Rightarrow$  Contains huge wealth of information about early universe

Expect also Cosmic Neutrino Background (not yet detected).

Dominant contribution to total energy budget:

- Visible matter: 5%
  - Baryons (i.e. nuclei) but no anti-baryons
  - Electrons ensures charge neutrality
  - Dominant form: Diffuse gas of H and He
  - Heavier elements very rare
- Dark matter: 25%
  - Accounts for “*missing mass*” needed to stabilise galaxies and galaxy clusters
  - Must be non-baryonic, non-relativistic and very weakly interacting
  - Unknown elementary particle?
- Dark energy: 70%
  - Uniformly fills space (“*vacuum energy*”)
  - Accounts for (accelerated) expansion
  - Fundamental theory completely unknown

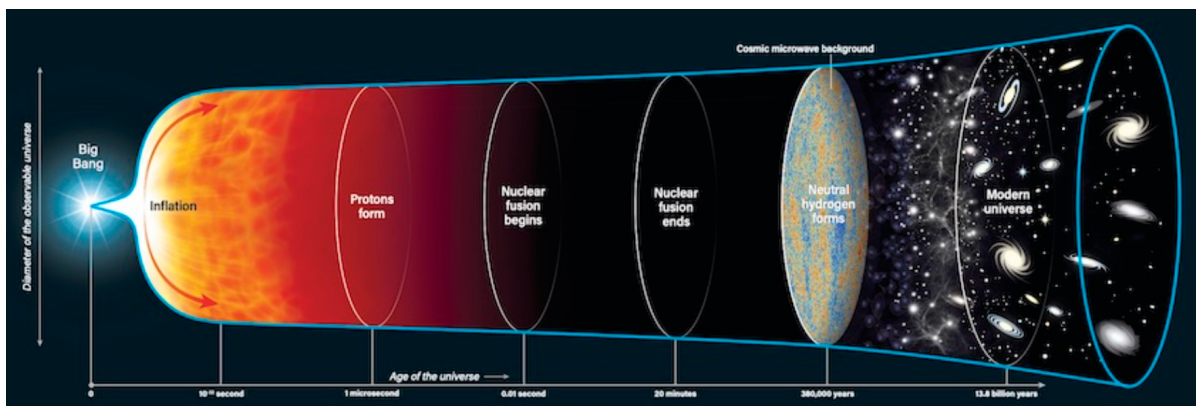
## 1.4 Universe in the past

Early universe was denser and hotter.

- For  $T \gtrsim 1 \text{ eV}$  : No bound atoms  $\rightarrow$  free electrons & nuclei  
 $T \gtrsim 100 \text{ keV}$  : No bound nuclei  $\rightarrow$  free protons & neutrons  
 $T \gtrsim 100 \text{ MeV}$  : No bound baryons  $\rightarrow$  free quarks & gluons

Even higher temperatures: Speculative

- ↳ Electroweak phase transition ?
- ↳ Dark matter production ?
- ↳ Generation of baryon-antibaryon asymmetry ?



Inflation: Sets initial conditions for evolution

## 2 Brief Introduction to General Relativity

**Recap:** Special relativity

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Define } ds^2 &= c^2 dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2 \\ &= \eta_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu \quad (\text{summation convention}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{with } \eta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & -1 & & \\ & & -1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and } \mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2, 3$$

$\Rightarrow ds^2$  is invariant under Lorentz transformation

$$y^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu \Rightarrow dy^\mu = \frac{\partial y^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} x^\nu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu, \text{ where } \Lambda^\mu_\rho \Lambda^\nu_\sigma \eta_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\rho\sigma}$$

Quantities that transform like  $dx^\mu$  are called contravariant vectors

Example: Consider world line  $X^\mu(\tau)$  of a particle

$$\Rightarrow U^\mu = \frac{dX^\mu}{d\tau} \text{ is contravariant vector}$$

Covariant vectors transform in the opposite way:

$$dy_\mu \equiv \eta_{\mu\nu} dy^\nu = \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial y^\mu} dx_\nu = (\Lambda^{-1})^\nu_\mu dx_\nu$$

Generalization to tensors:

$$T^\mu_\nu(y) = \frac{\partial y^\mu}{\partial x^\rho} \frac{\partial x^\sigma}{\partial y^\nu} T^\rho_\sigma(x) = \Lambda^\mu_\rho (\Lambda^{-1})^\sigma_\nu T^\rho_\sigma(x)$$

$\Rightarrow \eta_{\mu\nu}$  is a rank-2 covariant tensor.

Convenient to define inverse metric  $\eta^{\mu\nu}$ :

$$\eta^{\mu\nu} \eta_{\mu\rho} = \delta^\nu_\rho = \text{diag}(1, 1, 1, 1)$$

↳ Can be used to “pull” indices up and down:

$$T^{\mu\nu} = \eta^{\mu\rho} T^\nu_\rho; \quad T_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\rho} T^\rho_\nu$$

## 2.1 Non-inertial reference frames

Lorentz transformation do not introduce fictitious forces. Consider instead general transformation  $y^\mu = y^\mu(x^\nu)$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow ds^2 &= \eta_{\mu\nu} dy^\mu dy^\nu = \left( \eta_{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial y^\mu}{\partial x^\rho} \frac{\partial y^\nu}{\partial x^\sigma} \right) \cdot dx^\rho dx^\sigma \\ &\equiv g_{\rho\sigma} \cdot dx^\rho dx^\sigma \\ &\quad \downarrow \\ &\text{may depend on } x \end{aligned}$$

Consider motion of inertial particle  $y^\mu(\tau)$ :

$$\frac{d^2 y}{d\tau^2} = 0 \quad (\text{no acceleration})$$

New coordinate system:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 y^\mu}{d\tau^2} &= \frac{d}{d\tau} \frac{dy^\mu}{d\tau} = \frac{d}{d\tau} \left( \frac{\partial y^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \underbrace{\frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau}}_{=U^\nu} \right) \\ &= U^\nu \left( \frac{d}{d\tau} \frac{\partial y^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \right) + \frac{\partial y^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \frac{dU^\nu}{d\tau} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Using } \frac{d}{d\tau} \frac{\partial y^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} &= U^\rho \frac{\partial^2 y^\mu}{\partial x^\rho \partial x^\nu} \text{ and } \frac{\partial y^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} = \delta^\mu_\rho \\ \Rightarrow \frac{dU^\rho}{d\tau} &+ \underbrace{U^\mu U^\nu \left( \frac{\partial^2 y^\sigma}{\partial x^\mu \partial x^\nu} \frac{\partial x^\rho}{\partial y^\sigma} \right)}_{\substack{\equiv \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\rho \\ \neq 0 \text{ in general} \\ \rightarrow \text{non-inertial frame}}} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Using } \frac{\partial g_{\rho\sigma}}{\partial x^\lambda} &= \eta_{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\lambda} \left( \frac{\partial y^\mu}{\partial x^\rho} \frac{\partial y^\nu}{\partial x^\sigma} \right) \\ &= \eta_{\mu\nu} \left( \frac{\partial^2 y^\mu}{\partial x^\lambda \partial x^\rho} \frac{\partial y^\nu}{\partial x^\sigma} + \frac{\partial^2 y^\nu}{\partial x^\lambda \partial x^\sigma} \frac{\partial y^\mu}{\partial x^\rho} \right) & ; \eta_{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial y^\nu}{\partial x^\sigma} = g_{\kappa\sigma} \frac{\partial x^\kappa}{\partial y^\mu} \\ &= g_{\kappa\sigma} \Gamma_{\lambda\rho}^\kappa + g_{\kappa\rho} \Gamma_{\lambda\sigma}^\kappa \end{aligned}$$



we obtain  $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\rho} = \frac{1}{2}g^{\rho\sigma} \left( \frac{\partial g_{\mu\sigma}}{\partial x^{\nu}} + \frac{\partial g_{\nu\sigma}}{\partial x^{\mu}} - \frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^{\sigma}} \right)$  “Christoffel symbols”

Convenient to define covariant derivative:

Scalars:  $\nabla_{\mu}X = \partial_{\mu}X$

Vector:  $\nabla_{\mu}X^{\nu} = \partial_{\mu}X^{\nu} + \Gamma_{\mu\rho}^{\nu}X^{\rho}$   
 $\nabla_{\mu}X_{\nu} = \partial_{\mu}X_{\nu} - \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\rho}X_{\rho}$   
 $\Rightarrow \nabla_{\mu}(X^{\nu}X_{\nu}) = \partial_{\mu}(X^{\nu}X_{\nu})$

Tensor:  $\nabla_{\mu}T_{\rho}^{\nu} = \partial_{\mu}T_{\rho}^{\nu} + \Gamma_{\mu\sigma}^{\nu}T_{\rho}^{\sigma} - \Gamma_{\mu\rho}^{\sigma}T_{\sigma}^{\nu} \Rightarrow \nabla_{\mu}g_{\rho\sigma} = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \frac{dU^{\rho}}{d\tau} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\rho}U^{\mu}U^{\nu} &= \frac{\partial U^{\rho}}{\partial x^{\mu}} \frac{dx^{\mu}}{d\tau} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\rho}U^{\mu}U^{\nu} \\ &= U^{\mu} \left( \partial_{\mu}U^{\rho} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\rho}U^{\nu} \right) \\ &= U^{\mu} \nabla_{\mu}U^{\rho} = 0 \end{aligned} \quad \text{“geodesic equation”}$$

Note: Can also write geodesic eq. in terms of  $P^{\mu} = mU^{\mu} \Rightarrow P^{\mu} \nabla_{\mu}P_{\rho} = 0 \rightarrow$  valid also for massless particles

## 2.2 Curved spacetime

Metric  $g_{\mu\nu}$  can describe not only non-inertial frames but also general curved spacetime.

In such a spacetime, covariant derivatives do not commute:

$$\nabla_{\mu}\nabla_{\nu}A^{\sigma} - \nabla_{\nu}\nabla_{\mu}A^{\sigma} = R_{\mu\nu\rho}^{\sigma}A^{\rho}$$

with  $R_{\mu\nu\rho}^{\sigma} = \partial_{\nu}\Gamma_{\mu\beta}^{\sigma} - \partial_{\rho}\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\sigma} + \Gamma_{\lambda\nu}^{\sigma}\Gamma_{\mu\rho}^{\lambda} - \Gamma_{\lambda\rho}^{\sigma}\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\lambda}$  “Riemann tensor”

Interpretation: Consider two particles with separation  $B^{\mu}$  traveling with the same velocity  $U^{\mu}$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{D^2 B^{\mu}}{D\tau^2} &= -R_{\nu\rho\sigma}^{\mu}U^{\nu}U^{\sigma}B^{\rho} \\ \hookrightarrow \frac{D}{D\tau} &= U^{\nu}\nabla_{\nu} \neq 0 \text{ in curved spacetime} \end{aligned}$$

Convenient to define

$$\begin{aligned} R_{\mu\nu} &= R^\rho_{\mu\rho\nu} && \text{“Ricci tensor”} \\ R &= g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu} && \text{“Ricci scalar”} \\ G_{\mu\nu} &= R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R && \text{“Einstein tensor”} \end{aligned}$$

Comment: Can show that  $\nabla^\mu G_{\mu\nu} = 0$

### 2.3 Equivalence principle

Gravity is locally indistinguishable from acceleration (i.e. coordinate transformation to non-inertial frame)

$\Rightarrow$  Effect of gravity fully captured by metric  $g_{\mu\nu}$

How does metric depend on gravitating matter?

Consider a perfect fluid with density  $\rho$  and pressure  $p$  assumed to be homogeneous and isotropic in its rest frame ( $U^\mu = (1, 0, 0, 0)$ )

Define energy-momentum tensor

$$T_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(\rho, p, p, p)$$

in rest frame. In general frame with velocity  $U^\mu$ ,

$$T_{\mu\nu} = (\rho + p)U_\mu U_\nu - p g_{\mu\nu} = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} \text{energy density} & \text{energy flux} \\ \hline \text{momentum density} & \text{stress tensor} \end{array} \right)$$

$E - p$  conservation imply  $\nabla^\mu T_{\mu\nu} = 0$  for all  $\nu$ .

Both  $G_{\mu\nu}$  and  $T_{\mu\nu}$  are covariantly conserved.

Tempting to write  $G_{\mu\nu} = \kappa^2 T_{\mu\nu}$  where  $\kappa$  is unknown.

To determine  $\kappa^2$  consider metric

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 \left( 1 + \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2} \right) - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2 \quad \left( \frac{\Phi}{c^2} \ll 1 \right)$$

Find

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma_{00}^i &= \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{g^{i\sigma}}_{=-\delta^{i\sigma}} \left( \underbrace{\left( \frac{\partial g_{0\sigma}}{\partial x^0} + \frac{\partial g_{0\sigma}}{\partial x^0} - \frac{\partial g_{00}}{\partial x^\sigma} \right)}_{=0 \text{ for } \sigma=i} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} g_{00} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x^i}\end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$  Geodesic eq. for non-relativistic particle

$$\ddot{x}^i = -\Gamma_{00}^i U^0 U^0 = -\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x^i}$$

$\hookrightarrow \Phi$  acts like Newtonian potential

Now calculate

$$g^{\mu\nu} G_{\mu\nu} = -R = 2\nabla^2 \Phi$$

$$g^{\mu\nu} T_{\mu\nu} = \rho - 3p \stackrel{\text{non-rel}}{\approx} \rho \quad \Rightarrow \quad 2\nabla^2 \Phi = \kappa^2 \rho$$

Compare to Poisson eq.  $\nabla^2 \Phi = 4\pi G \rho$  where  $G$  is Newton's constant.

$$\Rightarrow \kappa^2 = 8\pi G$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}} \quad \text{“Einstein equation”}$$

### 3 The FLRW metric

Recap: Geometry of space-time described by metric  $g_{\mu\nu}$  (10 independent functions of  $(t, \vec{x})$ )

Important simplification: Universe observed to be homogenous & isotropic

↳  $g_{\mu\nu}$  independent of  $\vec{x}$

↳  $g_{\mu\nu}$  invariant under rotation

Example: Static flat space

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2 \\ &= dt^2 - dr^2 - r^2 \underbrace{(d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)}_{=d\Omega^2} \end{aligned}$$

More general: Allow expansion/contraction of spacial part with time

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - a(t)^2 [dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega^2] \quad \text{where } a(t) \text{ is the "scale factor"}$$

$a(t)$  is dimensionless  $\Rightarrow$  only ratio  $\frac{a(t_1)}{a(t_2)}$  meaningful.

Define  $H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)}$  ("Hubble rate")

Most general : Allow constant spatial curvature

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - a(t)^2 \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 d\Omega^2 \right] \quad \text{with } k = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{pos. curvature} & (3\text{-sphere}) \\ 0 & \text{flat} & (3\text{-plane}) \\ -1 & \text{neg. curvature} & (3\text{-hyperboloid}) \end{cases}$$

"Friedmann-Lemaître-Robertson-Walker (FLRW) metric"

Notes: – For  $k \neq 0$ ,  $r$  must be dimensionless and  $a(t)$  has dimension of length.

↳ Interpretation:  $a(t)$  = radius of curvature

– Sometimes convenient to define

$$d\chi \equiv \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - kr^2}}$$

↳ "coordinate distance"

$$d\eta = \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$

↳ "conformal time"

$$\Rightarrow ds^2 = a(\eta)^2 [d\eta^2 - (d\chi^2 + S_k^2(\chi)d\Omega^2)] \quad \text{with } S_k(\chi) = \begin{cases} \sin \chi & k = 1 \\ \chi & k = 0 \\ \sinh \chi & k = -1 \end{cases}$$

Consider particle at rest:  $x^\mu = (\tau, x_0, y_0, z_0)$ ,  $u^\mu = (1, 0, 0, 0)$

Geodesic equation:

$$0 = \underbrace{\frac{du^\rho}{d\tau}}_{=0} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\rho u^\mu u^\nu = \Gamma_{00}^\rho = \frac{1}{2} g^{\rho\sigma} \left( \partial_0 \underbrace{g_{0\sigma}}_{=\delta_{0\sigma}} + \partial_0 g_{\sigma 0} - \partial_\sigma g_{00} \right) = 0$$

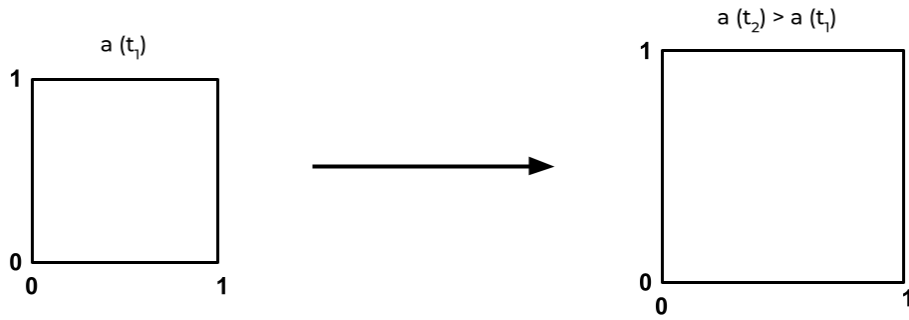
$\Rightarrow$  Particles at rest are free (no forces)

But: Physical distance to origin changes with time  $t$ :

$$ds^2 = a(t)^2 \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{d(r, t)}_{\text{physical distance}} = a(t) \int_0^r \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - kr^2}} = a(t) \times \begin{cases} \arcsin r & k = 1 \\ r & k = 0 \\ \operatorname{arcsinh} r & k = -1 \end{cases}$$

$\hookrightarrow$  coordinate distance



$x^i$  : “comoving coordinate”

$X^i = a(t) x^i$  : “physical coordinate”

$$V^i = \frac{dX^i}{dt} = \underbrace{a(t) \frac{dx^i}{dt}}_{\text{peculiar velocity}} + \underbrace{H X^i}_{\text{“Hubble flow”}}$$

Now consider particle with momentum  $P^\mu$

$$0 = P^\alpha \partial_\alpha P^\mu + \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu P^\alpha P^\beta$$

For  $\mu = 0$

$$\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^0 = \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{g^{\alpha\lambda}}_{=\delta^{\alpha\lambda}} \left( \partial_\alpha \underbrace{g_{\beta\lambda}}_{=\delta_{\beta\lambda}} + \partial_\beta \underbrace{g_{\alpha\lambda}}_{=\delta_{\alpha\lambda}} - \partial_\lambda g_{\alpha\beta} \right) = -\frac{1}{2} \partial_0 g_{\alpha\beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma_{00}^0 = \Gamma_{0i}^0 = 0, \quad \Gamma_{ij}^0 = -\frac{1}{2} \partial_0 g_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \partial_t a(t)^2 \gamma_{ij} = \dot{a}(t) \cdot a(t) \cdot \underbrace{\gamma_{ij}}_{\substack{\text{spatial} \\ \text{metric}}}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = P^\alpha \partial_\alpha P^0 + \dot{a} a \gamma_{ij} P^i P^j$$

Homogeneity of space :  $\partial_i P^0 = 0$

Use  $P^0 = E$ ,  $-g_{ij} P^i P^j = a^2 \gamma_{ij} P^i P^j = p^2$  where  $p$  is physical 3-momentum.

$$\Rightarrow E \frac{dE}{dt} = -\frac{\dot{a}}{a} p^2 = -H p^2$$

$$E^2 - p^2 = m^2 \Rightarrow E dE = p dp \Rightarrow \frac{\dot{p}}{p} = -\frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

For  $m = 0$  :  $p = E \sim \frac{1}{a}$

↳ Energy of massless particles decreases with increasing scale factor.

$$\text{For } m \neq 0 : \quad P^i = m U^i = m \frac{dX^i}{d\tau} = m \frac{dt}{d\tau} v^i = \frac{m v^i}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} \Rightarrow \frac{m v}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} \sim \frac{1}{a}$$

↳ Peculiar velocity decreases

↳ Particle converges onto Hubble flow

### 3.1 Redshift

Photons have  $\lambda = \frac{h}{p} \sim a(t)$

Classical Interpretation: Expansion of space stretches wavelength

Consider photon emitted at time  $t_i$  with  $\lambda_i$

Present universe:  $\lambda_0 = \lambda_i \frac{a_0}{a(t_i)} = \lambda_i (1 + z(t_i))$  with  $z(t) = \frac{a_0}{a(t)} - 1$  “redshift”

If  $\lambda_i$  is known (e.g. spectral line), we can infer  $z(t_i)$  from  $\lambda_0$

⇒ Infer time since emission

⇒ Infer distance of source

Useful relations:  $dz = -\frac{a_0}{a^2} da = -\frac{a_0}{a} H dt = -(1+z) H dt$

For nearby sources

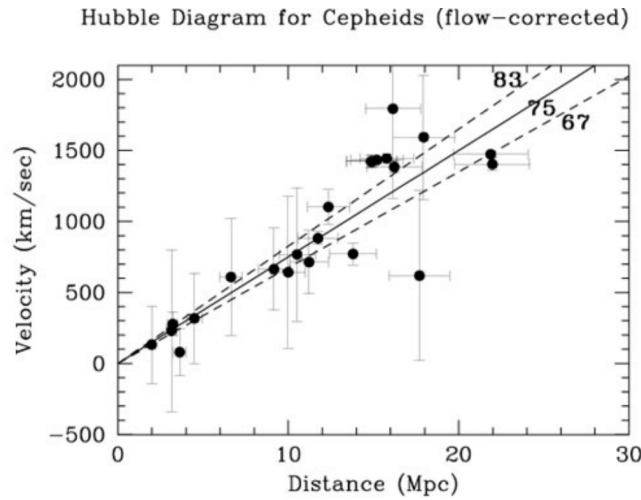
$$a(t_i) = a_0(1 + (t_i - t_0) \cdot H_0 + \dots), \quad H_0 = \left. \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right|_{t=t_0} \text{ (“Hubble constant”)}$$

$$\Rightarrow z(t_1) \approx H_0 \cdot \underbrace{(t_0 - t_i)}_{\substack{\approx d \\ \text{(distance to} \\ \text{emitter)}}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{z \stackrel{z \ll 1}{\approx} H_0 d} \quad \text{“Hubble’s law”}$$

↳ redshift proportional to distance

↳ can be used to measure  $H_0$  (inaccurate)



Note:  $H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \Rightarrow [H_0] = [\text{time}]^{-1}, \quad [d] = [\text{distance}] \Rightarrow [z] = [\text{velocity}]$

Convention:  $[H_0] = \text{km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}, \quad [d] = \text{Mpc} \Rightarrow [z] = \text{km s}^{-1}$

## 4 Dynamics of Cosmological Expansion

**Recap:**  $ds^2 = dt^2 - a(t)^2 \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 d\Omega^2 \right]$

$$\Rightarrow g_{00} = 1, \quad g_{ij} = -a(t)^2 \gamma_{ij}$$

What determines  $a(t)$ ?

Einstein equation:  $G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$

Let's calculate  $G_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R$

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_{0j}^i &= \frac{1}{2}g^{i\mu}(\partial_0 g_{\mu j} + \partial_j g_{0\mu} - \partial_\mu g_{0i}) & g^{i\mu} &= 0 \quad \text{for } \mu = 0 \\ & & g_{0\mu} &= 0 \quad \text{for } \mu \neq 0 \\ & & g_{0i} &= 0 \\ &= \frac{1}{2}a(t)^{-2}\gamma^{i\mu}\partial_0(a(t)^2\gamma_{\mu j}) \\ &= \gamma^{i\mu}\gamma_{\mu j}\frac{1}{2}a(t)^{-2} \cdot 2a(t)\dot{a}(t) \\ &= \delta_j^i \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \\ R_{00} &= \partial_\lambda \Gamma_{00}^\lambda - \partial_0 \Gamma_{0\lambda}^\lambda + \Gamma_{00}^\lambda \Gamma_{\lambda\sigma}^\sigma - \Gamma_{0\sigma}^\lambda \Gamma_{\lambda 0}^\sigma & \Gamma_{0\lambda}^\lambda &= 0 \quad \text{for } \lambda = 0, \quad \Gamma_{00}^\lambda = 0 \\ &= -\partial_0 \delta_i^i \frac{\dot{a}}{a} - \delta_j^i \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \delta_i^j \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \\ &= -3\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + 3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 - 3\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = -3\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} \end{aligned}$$

Analogous calculations:  $R_{0i} = 0, \quad R_{ij} = (\ddot{a} + 2\dot{a}^2 + 2k)\gamma_{ij}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow R &= g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu} = g^{00}R_{00} + g^{ij}R_{ij} \\ &= -3\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} - a^{-2} \underbrace{\gamma^{ij}\gamma_{ij}}_{=\delta_i^i=3} (\ddot{a} + 2\dot{a}^2 + 2k) \\ &= -6\left(\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2}\right) \\ \Rightarrow G_{00} &= R_{00} - \frac{1}{2}g_{00}R = 3\left(\frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k}{a^2}\right) \end{aligned}$$

What about  $T_{\mu\nu}$ ?

Consider universe filled with homogeneous fluid with energy density  $\rho(t)$  and pressure



$p(t)$  (good approximation on large scales)

Consider “cosmic rest frame”: Centre-of mass of fluid at rest  $\Rightarrow U^\mu = (1, 0, 0, 0)$

$$T_{\mu\nu} = (p + \rho)u_\mu u_\nu - g_{\mu\nu}p = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \rho & & & \\ & a^2 p & & \\ & & a^2 p & \\ & & & a^2 p \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{See note at the end of next section}}$$

$\Rightarrow$  For  $\mu = \nu = 0$ , Einstein equation becomes

$$\boxed{\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3} G \rho - \frac{k}{a^2}} \quad (\text{Friedmann equation})$$

$\hookrightarrow$  Relates two unknown functions of  $t : a(t), \rho(t)$

Need additional equation to determine  $\rho(t)$

$E - p$  conservation:  $\nabla_\mu T^{\mu\nu} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \partial_\mu T^{\mu\nu} + \Gamma_{\mu\sigma}^\mu T^{\sigma\nu} + \Gamma_{\mu\sigma}^\nu T^{\mu\sigma} = 0$$

Consider  $\nu = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \partial_0 T^{00} + \Gamma_{\mu 0}^\mu T^{\mu 0} + \underbrace{\Gamma_{00}^0}_{=0} T^{00} + \underbrace{\Gamma_{0j}^0}_{=0} T^{0j} + \underbrace{\Gamma_{i0}^0}_{=0} T^{i0} + \Gamma_{ij}^0 \underbrace{T^{ij}}_{g^{ik}g^{jl}T^{kl}} \\ &= \dot{\rho} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\rho + \dot{a}a \underbrace{\gamma_{ij}g^{ik}g^{jl}}_{-a^{-2}\delta_j^k} (-g_{kl}p) \\ \Rightarrow \boxed{\dot{\rho} + 3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}(\rho + p) = 0} \quad (E - p \text{ conservation}) \end{aligned}$$

Note:  $\rho(t)$  and  $p(t)$  related by equation of state (eos) of the fluid:

$$p = p(\rho)$$

$\Rightarrow$  For given eos, evolution of universe fully determined by Friedmann eq. +  $E - p$  conservation

$ij$ - component of Einstein equation gives

$$2\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = -8\pi G \rho - \frac{k}{a^2} \quad (\text{automatically satisfied})$$

## 4.1 Simple cosmological solutions ( $k = 0$ )

**Example 1:** Non-relativistic matter (Einstein- de Sitter Universe)

$$\text{EOS: } p \sim mr^2 \approx 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{\dot{\rho}}{\rho} = 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \Rightarrow \rho = \frac{\text{const}}{a^3}$$

Interpretation: Conservation of particle number  $N$

$$\hookrightarrow n = \frac{N}{V} \sim a^{-3} \Rightarrow \rho = m \cdot n \sim a^{-3}$$

Friedmann eq. :

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 &= \frac{\text{const}}{a^3} \Rightarrow \sqrt{a} da = \text{const} dt \\ &\Rightarrow a^{\frac{3}{2}} = \text{const} \cdot (t - t_s) \\ &\Rightarrow a(t) = \text{const} \cdot (t - t_s)^{\frac{2}{3}} \\ H(t) &= \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)} = \frac{2}{3(t - t_s)} \end{aligned}$$

For  $t \rightarrow t_s$ :  $a \rightarrow 0, H \rightarrow \infty$

$\hookrightarrow$  singularity (“Big bang”)

$\hookrightarrow$  convention:  $t_s = 0$

For  $t \rightarrow \infty$ :  $a \rightarrow \infty, H \rightarrow 0$

$\hookrightarrow$  Universe keeps expanding forever, but expansion slows down

The age of a matter-dominated universe is

$$t_0 = \frac{2}{3H_0} \sim 10^{10} \text{ yr} \quad (H_0 \text{ inferred from Hubble's law})$$

Present day density:  $\rho_0 = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H_0^2 \approx 10^{-29} \frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3}$

**Example 2:** Relativistic matter (radiation)

$$T^\mu_\mu = 0 \iff \rho - 3p = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{EOS: } p = \frac{1}{3}\rho \Rightarrow \frac{\dot{\rho}}{\rho} = 4 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \Rightarrow \rho = \frac{\text{const}}{a^4}$$

Interpretation: Energy of each particle redshifts  $\sim \frac{1}{a}$

$$\hookrightarrow \rho = E \cdot n \sim \frac{1}{a} \cdot \frac{1}{a^3} = \frac{1}{a^4}$$

Friedmann eq.:  $\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{\text{const}}{a^4} \Rightarrow a(t) = \text{const} \cdot (t)^{\frac{1}{2}} \Rightarrow H(t) = \frac{1}{2t}$

Note: If the radiation has a thermal (black-body) spectrum, we can define its temperature

$$\rho = \frac{\pi^2}{30} g T^4 \quad (g: \text{degrees of freedom})$$

$$\Rightarrow T \sim \frac{1}{a} \sim (1+z)$$

Useful relation:  $H = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi^3}{90}} \sqrt{g} \frac{T^2}{M_{\text{pl}}} \approx 1.66 \sqrt{g} \frac{T^2}{M_{\text{pl}}}$  with  $M_{\text{pl}} = G^{-1/2}$

**Example 3:** Vacuum energy

Assume that vacuum has non-vanishing energy density  $T_{\mu\nu} = \rho g_{\mu\nu}$

$$\Rightarrow p = -\rho \quad (\text{negative pressure})$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{\rho} = 0$$

Interpretation: Vacuum energy does not dilute as space expands

Friedmann eq.:  $\frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \text{const} \Rightarrow a = \text{const} \cdot e^{Ht}$  with  $H = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi}{3}} G \rho$

Very different from examples 1 + 2 :

- All quantities finite for  $t \rightarrow -\infty \Rightarrow$  No singularity
- $\ddot{a} > 0 \Rightarrow$  Accelerated expansion

**Example 4:** General component with  $p = w\rho$  ( $w > -1$ )

$$\Rightarrow a = \text{const} \cdot t^{\frac{2}{3(1+w)}} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{Decelerated expansion for } w > -1/3 \\ \text{Accelerated expansion for } w < -1/3 \end{array}$$

Comment: Possible to generalize Einstein eq. to

$$G_{\mu\nu} - \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu} \quad (\Lambda : \text{cosmological constant})$$

↳ First introduced by Einstein to guarantee stationary universe ( $H = 0$ )

↳ Hubble's law:  $H \neq 0$   
Einstein: "Größte Eselei meines Lebens"

Modern interpretation:  $\Lambda$  contributes to vacuum energy

$$\rho_{\text{vac}} \rightarrow \rho_{\text{vac}} + \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G}$$

But: So far no successful prediction of  $\rho_{\text{vac}}$  from first principles  
→ "Cosmological constant problem"

Conventions:  $\rho_{\text{vac}} \equiv \rho_{\Lambda}$   
vacuum energy  $\equiv$  dark energy

$k = 1 \Leftrightarrow$  closed universe

$k = 0 \Leftrightarrow$  flat universe

$k = -1 \Leftrightarrow$  open universe

Note:

$$T_{\mu}^{\nu} = (p + \rho)u_{\mu}u^{\nu} - \delta_{\mu}^{\nu}p = \begin{pmatrix} \rho & & & \\ & -p & & \\ & & -p & \\ & & & -p \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{same as in Minkowski space}$$

But

$$T_{\mu\nu} = g_{\nu\rho}T_{\mu}^{\rho} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho & & & \\ & a^2p & & \\ & & a^2p & \\ & & & a^2p \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{different from Minkowski space}$$

## 4.2 The $\Lambda$ CDM model

In general, the energy density of the Universe is a sum of different components

$$\rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho_{\text{M}} + \rho_{\text{rad}} + \rho_{\Lambda} \quad \Rightarrow \quad H^2 = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3} G (\rho_{\text{M}} + \rho_{\text{rad}} + \rho_{\Lambda}) - \frac{k}{a^2}$$

$$\text{Define } \rho_c = \frac{3}{8\pi G} H_0^2 \quad (\text{critical density})$$

$$\Omega_i = \frac{\rho_{i,0}}{\rho_c} \quad (\text{present-day abundance})$$

$$\Omega_{\text{curv}} = -\frac{k}{a^2 H_0^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Omega_M + \Omega_{\text{rad}} + \Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_{\text{curv}} = 1$$

Note:  $\Omega_M + \Omega_{\text{rad}} + \Omega_\Lambda = 1 \Leftrightarrow \rho_{\text{tot}} = \rho_c \Leftrightarrow k = 0$  (flat universe)

Observations yield  $\Omega_M + \Omega_\Lambda \approx 1 \Rightarrow \Omega_{\text{rad}}, \Omega_{\text{curv}} \ll 1$

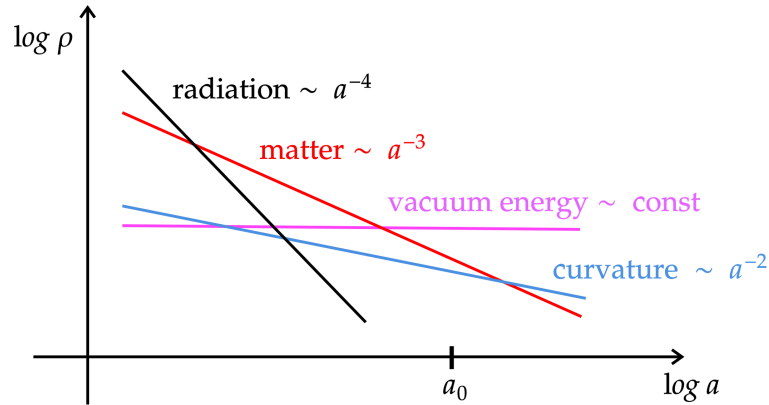
Lower bound on  $\Omega_{\text{rad}}$  from CMB:

$$\rho_{\text{rad},0} \geq \rho_{\gamma,0} = 2 \frac{\pi^2}{30} T_0^4 = 2.6 \cdot 10^{-10} \frac{\text{GeV}}{\text{cm}^3} \quad (T_0 \approx 2.726 \text{ K})$$

$$\rho_c \approx 5 \cdot 10^{-6} \frac{\text{GeV}}{\text{cm}^3} \Rightarrow \Omega_{\text{rad}} \gtrsim 5 \cdot 10^{-5}$$

Using  $\rho_M \sim a^{-3}$ ,  $\rho_{\text{rad}} \sim a^{-4}$ ,  $\rho_\Lambda \sim \text{const}$ :

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3} G \rho_c \left[ \underbrace{\Omega_M \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)^3 + \Omega_{\text{rad}} \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)^4}_{\text{dominate for small } a} + \underbrace{\Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_{\text{curv}} \left(\frac{a_0}{a}\right)^2}_{\text{dominate for large } a} \right]$$



For  $a \approx a_0$ , we can neglect  $\Omega_{\text{rad}}, \Omega_{\text{curv}}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \dot{a}^2 &= \frac{8\pi}{3} G \rho_c \left( \Omega_M \frac{a_0^3}{a} + \Omega_\Lambda a^2 \right) \quad (*) \\ \ddot{a} &= a \frac{4\pi}{3} G \rho_c \left( 2\Omega_\Lambda - \Omega_M \left( \frac{a_0}{a} \right)^3 \right) \end{aligned}$$

Transition from decelerated ( $\ddot{a} < 0$ ) to accelerated ( $\ddot{a} > 0$ ) expansion at

$$\left( \frac{a_0}{a_{ac}} \right)^3 = \frac{2\Omega_\Lambda}{\Omega_M}$$

Realistic values ( $\Omega_M = 0.3, \Omega_\Lambda = 0.7$ )

$$z_{ac} = \left( \frac{2\Omega_\Lambda}{\Omega_M} \right)^{1/3} - 1 \approx 0.76 \quad (\text{pretty recent!})$$

For  $a \ll a_0$ , we can neglect  $\Omega_\Lambda, \Omega_{\text{curv}}$

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 &= \frac{8\pi}{3} G \left( \frac{a_0}{a} \right)^3 \left[ \Omega_M + \Omega_{\text{rad}} \frac{a_0}{a} \right] \\ \Rightarrow \text{Matter-radiation equality: } \frac{a_0}{a_{eq}} &= \frac{\Omega_M}{\Omega_{\text{rad}}} \sim 10^4 \end{aligned}$$

More accurate estimate:  $\rho_{\text{rad}} = \rho_\gamma + \rho_\nu \approx 1.7 \rho_\gamma$  (will derive this later!)

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow 1 + z_{eq} &= \frac{a_0}{a_{eq}} \approx 3 \cdot 10^3 \\ T_{eq} &= (1 + z_{eq}) T_0 \approx 0.75 \text{ eV} \end{aligned}$$

For  $a < a_{eq}$ , universe is radiation dominated

$$\Rightarrow t_{eq} \approx \frac{1}{2H_{eq}} \approx 7 \cdot 10^4 \text{ yr}$$

For  $a \gg a_{eq}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (*) \Rightarrow a(t) &= a_0 \left( \frac{\Omega_M}{\Omega_\Lambda} \right)^{1/3} \sinh^{2/3} \left( \frac{3}{2} \sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda} H_0 t \right) \\ &\sim \begin{cases} t^{2/3} & \text{for } \frac{3}{2} \sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda} H_0 t \ll 1 \\ e^{\sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda} H_0 t} & \text{for } \frac{3}{2} \sqrt{\Omega_\Lambda} H_0 t \gg 1 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

$$\left(\frac{a_0}{a(t_{\text{ac}})}\right)^3 = \frac{2\Omega_\Lambda}{\Omega_M} \Rightarrow t_{\text{ac}} \sim 7.3 \text{ Gyr}$$

$$\frac{a_0}{a(t_0)} = 1 \Rightarrow t_0 \sim 13.5 \text{ Gyr}$$

Because of recent accelerated expansion, age of Universe is larger than for  $\Omega_M = 1$

- ↳ Consistent with observation of ancient stars requiring  $t_0 > 13 \text{ Gyr}$
- $\Rightarrow$  Evidence for  $\Omega_\Lambda > 0$

How to obtain more accurate estimates of  $\Omega_i$ ?

### 4.3 Brightness-redshift relation

To measure expansion history, need far-away objects of known absolute luminosity (“standard candles”)

Example: Type Ia supernovae (SNe Ia)

- ↳ Thermonuclear explosion of a white dwarf in a binary system
- ↳ Known relation between peak luminosity and time-dependence of emission

Need to relate absolute luminosity  $L = \frac{\text{emitted energy}}{\text{time}}$  to observed brightness  $\mathcal{J}$

$$\mathcal{J} = \frac{\# \text{ photons} \cdot \text{observed energy}}{\text{time} \cdot \text{area}}$$

Consider photons emitted at  $t_i$  and observed at  $t_0$ .

$$\text{Observed energy} = \text{emitted energy} \cdot \frac{a(t_i)}{a_0}$$

$$\frac{\# \text{ photons}}{\text{time}} = \frac{\# \text{ emitted photons}}{\text{time}} \cdot \frac{a(t_i)}{a_0} \quad \frac{a(t_i)}{a_0} : \text{redshift}$$

To calculate the area, use

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - a(t)^2 [d\chi^2 + S_k^2(\chi)d\Omega^2] = 0 \quad S_k(\chi) = \begin{cases} \sin \chi & k = 1 \\ \chi & k = 0 \\ \sinh \chi & k = -1 \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \chi(t_i) = \int_{t_i}^{t_0} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$

$$z(t) = \frac{a_0}{a(t)} - 1 \Rightarrow dz = -\frac{a_0}{a(t)^2} \dot{a}(t) dt = -\frac{a_0}{a(t)} H(z) dt$$

$$\chi(z) = \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{a_0 H(z')} \approx \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{a_0 H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_M (z' + 1)^3 + \Omega_\Lambda + \Omega_{\text{curv}} (z' + 1)^2}}$$

At  $t = t_0$  the photons pass through a sphere of size  $S(z) = 4\pi \underline{d}^2(z) = 4\pi a_0^2 S_k^2(\chi(z))$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\mathcal{J} = \frac{L}{(1+z)^2 S(z)} = \frac{L}{4\pi r_L^2}} \quad \text{with } r_L = (1+z) a_0 S_k(\chi(z)) \quad (\text{“luminosity distance”})$$

Comment:

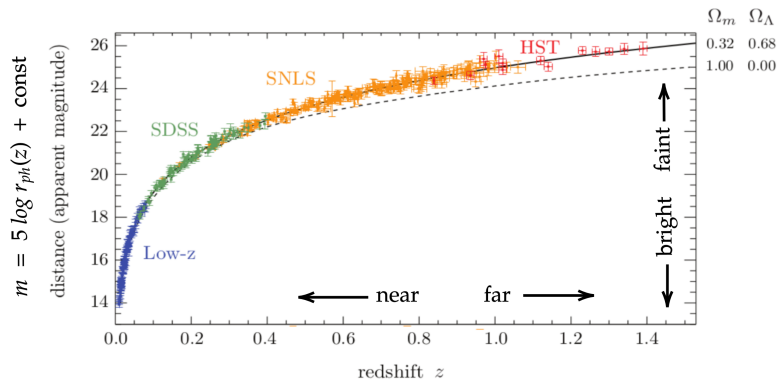
- For  $z \ll 1 : (z' + 1) \approx 1 \Rightarrow \chi(z) \approx \frac{z}{a_0 H_0} \Rightarrow \underline{d}(z) \approx \frac{z}{H_0}$  (Hubble's law)
- Consider  $\Omega_{\text{curv}} = 0 \Rightarrow \Omega_M + \Omega_\Lambda = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow H_0 \underline{d}(z) &= \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{\sqrt{\Omega_M (z' + 1)^3 + (1 - \Omega_M)}} \\ &= \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{\sqrt{\Omega_M (3z' + 3z'^2 + z'^3) + 1}} \\ &= \begin{cases} 2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+z}}\right) & \Omega_M = 1, \Omega_\Lambda = 0 \\ z & \Omega_M = 0, \Omega_\Lambda = 1 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \underline{d}(z)$  increases with decreasing  $\Omega_M$

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{J}$  decreases with decreasing  $\Omega_M$

↳ vacuum energy makes standard candles less bright



Exactly what is observed! → Nobel prize 2011



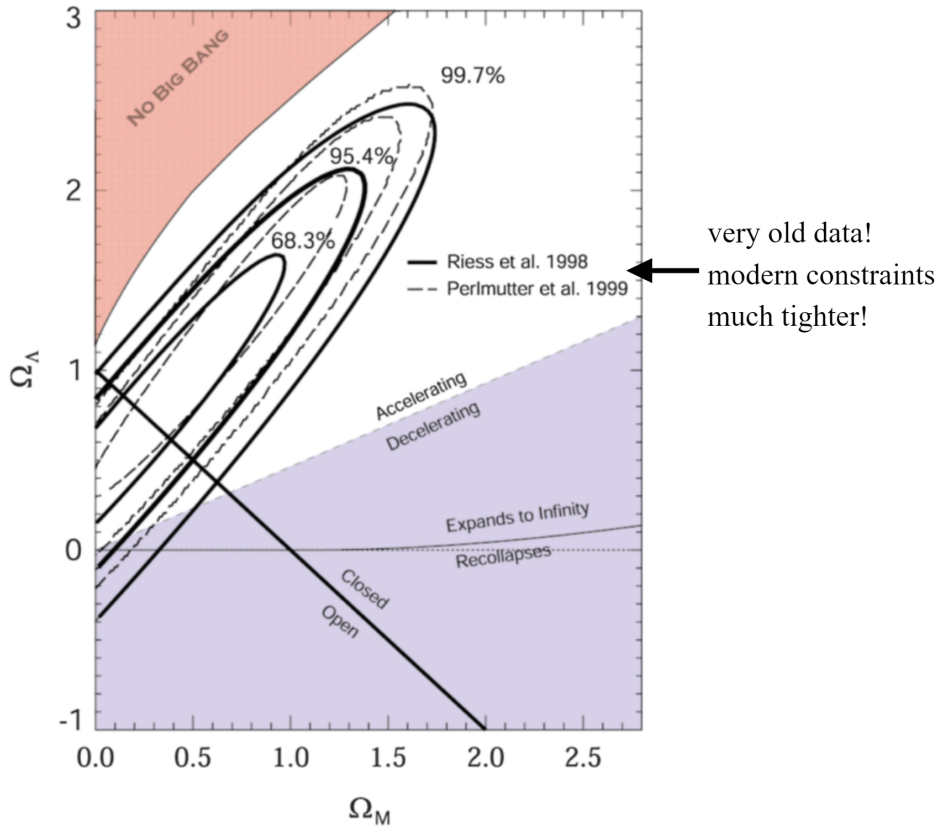
- For  $\Omega_{\text{curv}} > 0$  ( $k = -1$ ) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 \chi(z) &\stackrel{z \ll 1}{\approx} \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{a_0 H_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1+3z') \Omega_M + \Omega_\Lambda + (1+2z') \Omega_{\text{curv}}}} \\
 &\approx \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{a_0 H_0} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2} (3\Omega_M + 2\Omega_{\text{curv}}) z' \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{a_0 H_0} \left( z - \frac{z^2}{4} (3\Omega_M + 2\Omega_{\text{curv}}) + \mathcal{O}(z^3) \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{a_0 H_0} \left( z - \frac{z^2}{4} (2 + \Omega_M - 2\Omega_\Lambda) + \mathcal{O}(z^3) \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

↳ Non-linear correction to Hubble's law

Data clearly requires  $\Omega_M - 2\Omega_\Lambda > 0$

⇒ Present universe experiences accelerated expansion!



## 5 Early Universe Thermodynamics

**So far:** Treated matter and radiation as non-interacting perfect fluids

**More realistic:** Ensembles of interacting particles

- ↳ Sufficiently strong interactions  $\Rightarrow$  local thermal equilibrium (LTE)  
(will quantify this next lecture!)

Each particle species  $i$  characterised by distribution function

$$f_i(\vec{p}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{e^{(E_i - \mu_i)/T} \mp 1} \quad \begin{array}{ll} - : & \text{boson} \\ + : & \text{fermion} \end{array}$$

$$\text{with } E_i = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m_i^2}$$

$T$  : temperature (common for all species)

$\mu_i$  : chemical potential (may depend on  $T$ )

For process  $A_1 + A_2 + \dots \longleftrightarrow B_1 + B_2 + \dots$  in chemical equilibrium:

$$\mu_{A_1} + \mu_{A_2} + \dots = \mu_{B_1} + \mu_{B_2} + \dots$$

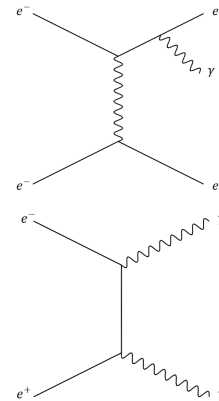
**Examples:**

$$e^- + e^- \rightarrow e^- + e^- + \gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_\gamma = 0$$

$$e^- + e^+ \rightarrow 2\gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_{e^+} = -\mu_{e^-}$$



For  $m_i \gg T, \mu_i$ :

$$E_i \approx m_i + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\vec{p}^2}{m_i}$$

$$\Rightarrow f_i(\vec{p}) \approx \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} e^{(\mu_i - m_i)/T} e^{-\vec{p}^2/2m_i T}$$

For given  $f_i(\vec{p})$ , we can calculate

- number density

$$n_i = g_i \int f_i(\vec{p}) d^3p \stackrel{EdE=pd p}{=} 4\pi g_i \int f_i(E) \sqrt{E^2 - m_i^2} E dE$$

- energy density

$$\rho_i = g_i \int f_i(\vec{p}) E_i(\vec{p}) d^3p = 4\pi g_i \int f_i(E) \sqrt{E^2 - m_i^2} E^2 dE$$

- pressure

$$p_i = \frac{g_i}{3} \int f_i(\vec{p}) \frac{\vec{p}^2}{E_i(\vec{p})} d^3p = \frac{4\pi g_i}{3} \int f_i(E) (E^2 - m_i^2)^{3/2} dE$$

$g_i$  : degrees of freedom

SM:  $i = \gamma \quad e^- \quad e^+ \quad Z \quad W^- \quad W^+ \quad \nu \quad \bar{\nu} \quad h \quad q \quad \bar{q} \quad g$

$$g_i = 2 \quad 2 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 6 \quad 6 \quad 16$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i g_i &= \sum_{\text{bosons}} g_i + \sum_{\text{fermions}} g_i = (2 + 3 \times 3 + 1 + 16) + (3 \times 2 \times (2 + 1 + 6 + 6)) \\ &= 28 + 90 = 118 \end{aligned}$$

## 5.1 Relativistic species

Assume  $T \gg m_i, \quad \mu_i = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \rho_i = \frac{g_i}{2\pi^2} \int \frac{E^3}{e^{E/T} \mp 1} dE = \begin{cases} g_i \cdot \frac{\pi^2}{30} T^4 & \text{boson} \\ \frac{7}{8} g_i \cdot \frac{\pi^2}{30} T^4 & \text{fermion} \end{cases}$$

For several relativistic species

$$\rho = \sum_i \rho_i = g_* \frac{\pi^2}{30} T^4 \quad \text{with } g_* = \sum_{\text{rel. bosons}} g_i + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{\text{rel. fermions}} g_i$$

(effective number of rel. degrees of freedom)

- Examples:**
- $T \gg m_t : \quad g_* = 28 + \frac{7}{8} \cdot 90 = 106.75$
  - $m_\mu \gg T \gg m_e : \quad g_* = 2 + \frac{7}{8}(2 \times 2 + 3 \times 2 \times 1) = 10.75$

$$p_i = \frac{g_i}{6\pi^2} \int \frac{E^3}{e^{E/T} \mp 1} dE = \frac{\rho_i}{3} \quad (\text{as expected})$$

$$n_i = \frac{g_i}{2\pi^2} \int \frac{E^2}{e^{E/T} \mp 1} dE = \begin{cases} g_i \cdot \frac{\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} T^3 & \text{boson} \\ \frac{3}{4} g_i \cdot \frac{\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} T^3 & \text{fermion} \end{cases} \quad \zeta(3) \approx 1.2$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle E \rangle = \frac{\rho_i}{n_i} = \begin{cases} 2.70 T & \text{boson} \\ 3.15 T & \text{fermion} \end{cases}$$

## 5.2 Non-relativistic species

$$n_i = \frac{g_i}{2\pi^2} e^{\frac{\mu_i - m_i}{T}} \int \underbrace{e^{-p^2/2m_i T} p^2}_{\text{Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution}} dp = g_i \left( \frac{m_i T}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} e^{\frac{\mu_i - m_i}{T}}$$

For  $\mu_i = 0$ , density of non-rel particles is exponentially suppressed (Boltzmann suppression)

Interpretation: Annihilation process  $\underset{\text{heavy}}{h} + \underset{\text{heavy}}{h} \rightarrow \underset{\text{light}}{l} + \underset{\text{light}}{l}$  always possible

Production process  $l + l \rightarrow h + h$  requires  $E > 2m_h$

↳ Exponentially unlikely for  $T \ll m_h$

↳ Heavy particles “annihilate away”

↳ Energy density dominated by light species (unless  $\mu_i \neq 0$ )

$$\rho_i = m_i \cdot n_i + \frac{3}{2} n_i T \xrightarrow{T \rightarrow 0} m_i n_i$$

$$p_i = T n_i \xrightarrow{T \rightarrow 0} 0 \quad (\text{Note: } pV = NT \text{ ideal gas law for } k_B = 1)$$

## 5.3 Entropy

First law of thermodynamics:  $dE = TdS - pdV + \sum_i \mu_i dN_i$

Define  $s = \frac{S}{V}$  (entropy density)

$$\Rightarrow ds = \frac{dS}{V} - s \frac{dV}{V} \quad (\text{analogous for } \rho = \frac{E}{V}, n = \frac{N}{V})$$

$$\Rightarrow \left( Ts - p - \rho + \sum_i \mu_i n_i \right) dV + (Tds - d\rho + \mu dn)V = 0$$

Consider  $V = \text{const.} \Rightarrow dV = 0 \Rightarrow Tds - d\rho + \mu dn = 0$

For arbitrary volume  $\Rightarrow Ts - p - \rho + \sum_i \mu_i n_i = 0$

$$\Rightarrow s = \frac{p + \rho - \sum_i \mu_i n_i}{T}$$

**Example:**

- Rel. species with  $\mu_i = 0$

$$\Rightarrow s_i = \frac{p_i + \rho_i}{T} = \frac{4}{3} \frac{\rho_i}{T} = \begin{cases} g_i \frac{2\pi^2}{45} T^3 & \text{boson} \\ \frac{7}{8} g_i \frac{2\pi^2}{45} T^3 & \text{fermion} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow s = \sum_i s_i = g_* \frac{2\pi^2}{45} T^3$$

- Non-rel species

$$s_i = \frac{\rho_i + p_i - \mu_i n_i}{T}$$

$$= \frac{m_i n_i + \frac{3}{2} n_i T + n_i T - \mu_i n_i}{T}$$

$$= n_i \left( \frac{5}{2} + \frac{m_i - \mu_i}{T} \right) \quad \frac{m_i - \mu_i}{T} = \log \left[ \frac{g_i}{n_i} \left( \frac{m_i T}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} \right]$$

$\Rightarrow$  Similar Boltzmann suppression as for  $n_i$

Second law of thermodynamics:  $dS = 0$  for equilibrium evolution

Proof (assuming  $\sum_i \mu_i dn_i = 0$ ):

$$TdS = pdV + d(\rho \cdot V) = (p + \rho)dV + Vd\rho$$

Remember:  $V \sim a^3 \Rightarrow dV = 3a^2 da = 3V \frac{da}{a}$

$$\Rightarrow T \frac{dS}{dt} = V \underbrace{\left( 3(p + \rho) \frac{\dot{a}}{a} + \dot{\rho} \right)}_{=0 \text{ (} E-p \text{ conservation)}}$$

$$\Rightarrow s \cdot a^3 = \text{const}$$

$\Rightarrow$  entropy density convenient measure of expansion

Define  $Y_i = \frac{n_i}{s} \sim n_i \cdot V = N_i$

If no particles are produced/destroyed  $\Rightarrow Y_i = \text{const}$

**Examples:** Baryon number conservation:  $N_B - N_{\bar{B}} = \text{const}$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta_B = \frac{n_B}{s} - \frac{n_{\bar{B}}}{s} = \text{const}$$

### Particle thresholds

Shown before that  $T \sim a^{-1}$  during RD

Implicitly assumed  $g_* = \text{const}$

More accurate:  $g_* T^3 a^3 = \text{const} \Rightarrow T \sim g_*^{-1/3} a^{-1}$

If  $T$  drops below  $m_i$

$\Rightarrow$  species becomes non-relativistic

$\Rightarrow g_*$  decreases

$\Rightarrow T$  decreases more slowly

Interpretation: As non-relativistic particles annihilate away, entropy transferred to relativistic species

## 6 Boltzmann equation

**Last time:** Assumed all species to be in equilibrium

↳ Not always satisfied

↳ Departure from equilibrium essential for cosmology

**Today:** General evolution of  $f(p, t) \leftarrow$  homogeneous and isotropic

$$\underbrace{L[f]}_{\substack{\text{Liouville operator} \\ \rightarrow \text{phase space evolution}}} = \underbrace{C[f]}_{\substack{\text{Collision operator} \\ \rightarrow \text{effect of interactions}}}$$

For  $C[f] = 0$ : Particle number conserved

$\Rightarrow$  Phase space volume conserved

$$\Rightarrow \frac{df(p, t)}{dt} = 0 = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{dp}{dt} \frac{\partial f}{\partial p}$$

Consider particle 4-momentum  $P^\mu = (E, \vec{p})$

$$p dp = E dE = P^0 dP^0$$

$$\Rightarrow p \frac{dp}{dt} = P^0 \frac{dP^0}{dt} \underset{\substack{\text{geodesic} \\ \text{eq.}}}{=} -\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^0 P^\alpha P^\beta = -H(t) p^2$$

$$\Rightarrow L[f] = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} - H(t) p \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} - H(t) \frac{p^2}{E} \frac{\partial f}{\partial E}$$

Often convenient to consider integral

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3p L[f] &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \underbrace{\left( \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3p f \right)}_{=n(t)} - H \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \underbrace{\int d^3p p \frac{\partial f}{\partial p}}_{=-4\pi \int_0^\infty 3p^2 f dp} \\ &= \dot{n} + 3Hn = \frac{1}{a^3} \frac{d}{dt} (na^3) \end{aligned}$$

↳ Liouville operator describes change in  $n(t)$  due to expansion

To find explicit form for  $C[f]$  consider interaction  $1 + 2 \leftrightarrow 3 + 4$

↳ Decrease in  $f_1$  proportional to

$$\sum_{\text{spins}} \underbrace{|\mathcal{M}_{12 \rightarrow 34}|^2}_{\substack{\text{reaction} \\ \text{probability}}} \cdot \underbrace{f_3 f_4}_{\substack{\text{density of} \\ \text{initial states}}} \cdot \underbrace{(1 \pm f_1)(1 \pm f_2)}_{\substack{\text{boson: + (Bose enhancement)} \\ \text{fermion: - (Pauli blocking)}}$$

↳ Increase in  $f_1$  proportional to

$$\sum_{\text{spins}} |\mathcal{M}_{34 \rightarrow 21}|^2 f_1 f_2 (1 \pm f_3) (1 \pm f_4)$$

Simplifications:

- Often possible to assume  $f \ll 1 \Rightarrow (1 \pm f) \approx 1$
- For most processes  $|\mathcal{M}_{12 \rightarrow 34}|^2 = |\mathcal{M}_{34 \rightarrow 21}|^2 \equiv |\mathcal{M}|^2$
- Need to integrate over all possible momenta

$$\Rightarrow C[f_1] = \frac{1}{2E_1} \int \frac{d\Pi_2 d\Pi_3 d\Pi_4}{\left(d\Pi = \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 2E}\right)} (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4) \times \sum_{\text{spins}} |\mathcal{M}|^2 (f_3 f_4 - f_1 f_2)$$

Additional assumption:  $f_3$  and  $f_4$  given by equil. dist.

$$\Rightarrow f_3 \cdot f_4 = f_3^{\text{eq}} \cdot f_4^{\text{eq}} = e^{-(E_3 + E_4)/T}$$

$$\stackrel{E \text{ cons.}}{=} e^{-(E_1 + E_2)/T} = f_1^{\text{eq}} f_2^{\text{eq}}$$

$$\Rightarrow C[f_1] = \frac{1}{2E_1} \int d\Pi_2 (f_1^{\text{eq}} f_2^{\text{eq}} - f_1 f_2) \times \underbrace{\int d\Pi_3 d\Pi_4 (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4) \sum_{\text{spins}} |\mathcal{M}|^2}_{=\sigma v}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3 p C[f_1] = \int d\Pi_1 d\Pi_2 (f_1^{\text{eq}} f_2^{\text{eq}} - f_1 f_2) \sigma v$$

Now assume  $\frac{n}{n^{\text{eq}}} = \frac{f}{f^{\text{eq}}}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3 p C[f_1] = (n_1^{\text{eq}} n_2^{\text{eq}} - n_1 n_2) \times \underbrace{\frac{1}{n_1^{\text{eq}} n_2^{\text{eq}}} \int d\Pi_1 d\Pi_2 f_1^{\text{eq}} f_2^{\text{eq}} \sigma v}_{\equiv \langle \sigma v \rangle}$$

“thermally averaged cross section”

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\dot{n}_1 + 3H n_1 = \langle \sigma v \rangle (n_1^{\text{eq}} n_2^{\text{eq}} - n_1 n_2)} \quad (\text{Boltzmann equation})$$



**Example:** Consider  $e^+e^- \leftrightarrow \gamma\gamma$  with  $n_{e^+} = n_{e^-} \equiv n$   
 $\Rightarrow \dot{n} + 3Hn = \langle \sigma v \rangle [(n^{\text{eq}})^2 - n^2]$

Using  $Y = \frac{n}{s}$  and  $3Hs + \dot{s} = 0$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \dot{n} &= \dot{Y}s + Y\dot{s} = \dot{Y}s - 3HsY \\ \Rightarrow \dot{Y} &= -\langle \sigma v \rangle s (Y^2 - Y_{\text{eq}}^2)\end{aligned}$$

Define  $x \equiv \frac{m}{T} \Rightarrow \frac{ds}{dx} = \dot{s} \frac{dt}{dx} = -3Hs \frac{dt}{dx}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dY}{dx} = \frac{1}{3H} \frac{ds}{dx} \langle \sigma v \rangle (Y^2 - Y_{\text{eq}}^2)$$

For  $g_* = \text{const}$  :  $s \sim T^3$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{ds}{dx} = 3 \frac{s}{T} \frac{dT}{dx} = -\frac{3s}{x}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{dY}{dx} = -\frac{s}{Hx} \langle \sigma v \rangle (Y^2 - Y_{\text{eq}}^2)}$$

Interpretation:  $\sigma \cdot \underbrace{v \cdot n}_{\substack{\text{particle} \\ \text{flux}}} = \Gamma$  “interaction rate”

$\hookrightarrow$  determines how rapid an interaction happens

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\frac{x}{Y_{\text{eq}}} \frac{dy}{dx}}_{\substack{\text{rel. change} \\ \text{in density}}} = - \underbrace{\frac{\Gamma}{H}}_{\text{interaction}} \cdot \underbrace{\left( \frac{Y^2}{Y_{\text{eq}}^2} - 1 \right)}_{\text{departure from equil.}}$$

- If  $Y < Y_{\text{eq}}$  :  $\frac{dY}{dx} > 0 \Rightarrow$  increase
  - If  $Y > Y_{\text{eq}}$  :  $\frac{dY}{dx} < 0 \Rightarrow$  decrease
- } evolution towards equilibrium
- For  $\Gamma \gg H$  : Quick evolution  $Y \rightarrow Y_{\text{eq}} \Rightarrow$  thermal equilibrium
  - For  $\Gamma \ll H$  :  $\frac{dY}{dx} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow$  no thermal equilibrium

$\Rightarrow$  comoving number density constant

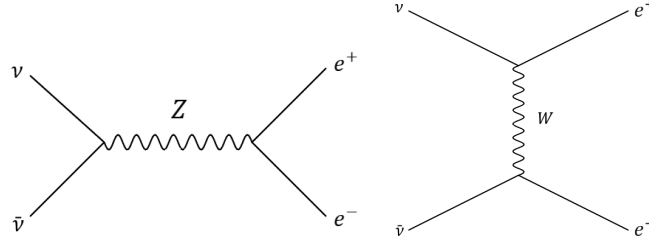
For  $e^+e^- \leftrightarrow \gamma\gamma$  and  $E \gg m_e$ :  $\sigma \sim \frac{\alpha^2}{E^2}$ ,  $\langle \sigma v \rangle \sim \frac{\alpha^2}{T^2}$  and  $n_{\text{eq}} \sim T^3 \Rightarrow \Gamma \sim \alpha^2 T$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Gamma}{H} \sim \frac{\alpha^2 M_{\text{P}}}{T} \sim \frac{10^{15} \text{ GeV}}{T} \gg 1 \text{ for all relevant } T$$

$\Rightarrow e^+, e^-, \gamma$  in thermal equilibrium

↳ Also true for other particles with EM charge

Next: Consider  $\nu\bar{\nu} \leftrightarrow e^+e^-$



For  $m_e \ll E \ll m_{W,Z}$ :  $\sigma \sim G_F^2 E^2$  ( $G_F = 1.17 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ GeV}^{-2}$ )

$$\Rightarrow \langle \sigma v \rangle \sim G_F^2 T^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma \sim G_F^2 T^5$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Gamma}{H} \sim G_F^2 T^3 M_{\text{P}} \sim 10^9 \text{ GeV}^{-3} T^3 \sim \left( \frac{T}{1 \text{ MeV}} \right)^3$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Gamma}{H} > 1 \Leftrightarrow T > 1 \text{ MeV}$$

$\Rightarrow$  Neutrinos decouple from thermal equilibrium when  $T$  drops below 1 MeV

More detailed calculation:  $T_{\nu}^{\text{dec}} = 2 - 3 \text{ MeV}$  (depends on flavour)

## 7 Relic neutrinos

Neutrinos decouple from thermal bath at  $T_{\text{dec}} \sim 2 - 3$  MeV. What happens then?

Without interactions, the coordinate momentum  $k = a \cdot p$  of each neutrinos is time independent

$$\Rightarrow f(p, t) = f(k) = f_{\text{dec}} \left( \frac{a(t)}{a_{\text{dec}}} p \right) \quad (a_{\text{dec}} : \text{scale factor at decoupling})$$

$$\text{with } f_{\text{dec}}(p) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{e^{p/T_{\text{dec}}} + 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow f(p, t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{e^{(p/T_{\text{eff}}(t))} + 1} \quad \text{with } T_{\text{eff}}(t) = \frac{a_{\text{dec}}}{a(t)} T_{\text{dec}}$$

↳ Neutrinos maintain thermal distribution even without interactions

↳ Effective temperature decreases as  $T_{\text{eff}} \sim a^{-1} \Rightarrow n_{\nu} \sim a^{-3}$

↳ True even for  $T_{\text{eff}} < m_{\nu}$

$\Rightarrow$  Neutrinos have rel. distribution even in present universe (“hot relic”)

$\Rightarrow$  Very different from equilibrium distribution (i.e. Maxwell-Boltzmann)

Since  $T_{\text{dec}} > m_e$ , there are still many  $e^+, e^-$  in thermal bath when neutrinos decouple

↳ Annihilate away for  $T \ll m_e : e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$

↳ Energy and entropy transferred to photons, but not to neutrinos

$\Rightarrow T_{\gamma}$  does not decrease as  $a(t)^{-1}$

$\Rightarrow$  For  $T_{\gamma} \ll m_e : T_{\gamma} \neq T_{\nu, \text{eff}}$

Make use of entropy conservation in electron-photon system:

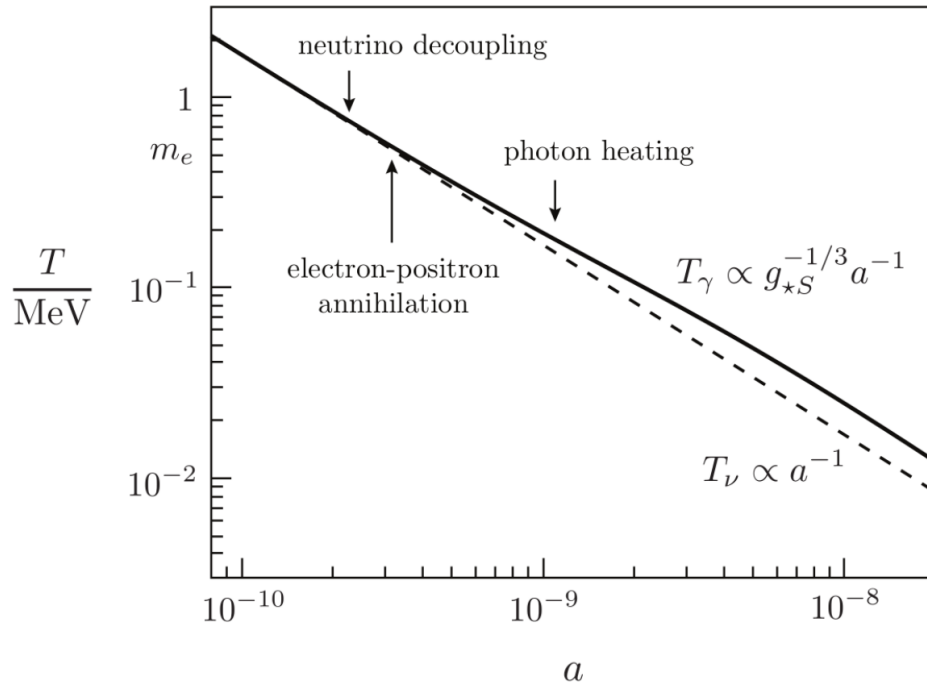
$$g_*^{e\gamma}(T_{\gamma}) a^3 T_{\gamma}^3 = \text{const}$$

$$\text{For } T_{\text{dec}} > T_{\gamma} > m_e : \quad g_*^{e\gamma} = 2 + \frac{7}{8} \left( 2_{e^-} + 2_{e^+} \right) = \frac{11}{2}$$

$$\text{For } T_{\gamma} \ll m_e : \quad g_*^{e\gamma} = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{11}{2} a_{\text{dec}}^3 T_{\text{dec}}^3 = 2 a^3 T_{\gamma}^3 \Rightarrow T_{\gamma} = \left( \frac{11}{4} \right)^{1/3} T_{\text{dec}} \frac{a_{\text{dec}}}{a}$$

$$\Rightarrow T_{\gamma} = \left( \frac{11}{4} \right)^{1/3} T_{\nu, \text{eff}}$$



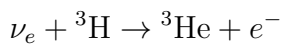
## 7.1 Neutrinos in the present Universe

Use CMB temperature  $T_{\gamma,0} = 2.73$  K to predict present-day temperature of cosmic neutrino background (CνB)

$$T_{\text{C}\nu\text{B}} = T_{\nu,\text{eff},0} \approx 1.95 \text{ K}$$

$$\Rightarrow n_{\nu,0} = \frac{3}{4} \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} T_{\text{C}\nu\text{B}}^3 \approx 112 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ per species}$$

So far not detected. Promising idea: PTOLEMY



↳ Tiny energy release, very challenging!

What about indirect effects?

↳ Contribution of  $\rho_\nu$  modifies expansion rate

$$\rho_{\nu,0} = \sum m_\nu \cdot n_{\nu,0}$$

$$\text{Require } \Omega_\nu = \frac{\rho_{\nu,0}}{\rho_c} < 1 \Rightarrow \sum m_\nu < 50 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{Require } \Omega_\nu < \Omega_M \Rightarrow \sum m_\nu < 15 \text{ eV}$$

KATRIN experiment:  $m_{\nu_e} < 0.8 \text{ eV} \Rightarrow \sum m_\nu < 2.4 \text{ eV} \Rightarrow \Omega_\nu < 0.05$

Neutrinos cannot be all of dark matter!

Neutrino oscillation experiments:  $\sum m_\nu > 0.06 \text{ eV} \Rightarrow \Omega_\nu > 10^{-3} \gg \Omega_{\text{rad}}$

## 7.2 Neutrinos during radiation domination

**General treatment:** Consider non-interacting rel.species with  $T_{n_i} \neq T_\gamma$

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \rho_{\text{eq}} + \rho_{n_i} \\ &= \left( \sum_{\substack{\text{bosons} \\ \text{in eq.}}} g_i + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{\substack{\text{fermions} \\ \text{in eq.}}} g_i \right) \frac{\pi^2}{30} T_\gamma^4 + \left( \frac{7}{8} \right) g_{n_i} \frac{\pi^2}{30} T_{n_i}^4 \\ &= g_* \frac{\pi^2}{30} T_\gamma^4 \\ \text{with } g_* &= \sum_{\substack{\text{bosons} \\ \text{in eq.}}} g_i + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{\substack{\text{fermions} \\ \text{in eq.}}} g_i + \left( \frac{7}{8} \right) g_{n_i} \frac{\pi^2}{30} \left( \frac{T_{n_i}}{T_\gamma} \right)^4 \end{aligned}$$

Analogous:  $s = g_{*,s} \frac{2\pi^2}{45} T_\gamma^3$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{with } g_{*,s} &= \sum_{\substack{\text{bosons} \\ \text{in eq.}}} g_i + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{\substack{\text{fermions} \\ \text{in eq.}}} g_i + \left( \frac{7}{8} \right) g_{n_i} \frac{\pi^2}{30} \left( \frac{T_{n_i}}{T_\gamma} \right)^3 \\ g_* &\neq g_{*,s} \text{ in general} \end{aligned}$$

In our case:  $T_{n_i} = T_{\nu, \text{eff}} = \left( \frac{4}{11} \right)^{1/3} T_\gamma$

$\Rightarrow$  For  $T_\gamma < m_e$ :  $g_* = 2 + 6 \cdot \frac{7}{8} \cdot \left( \frac{4}{11} \right)^{4/3} = 3.36$

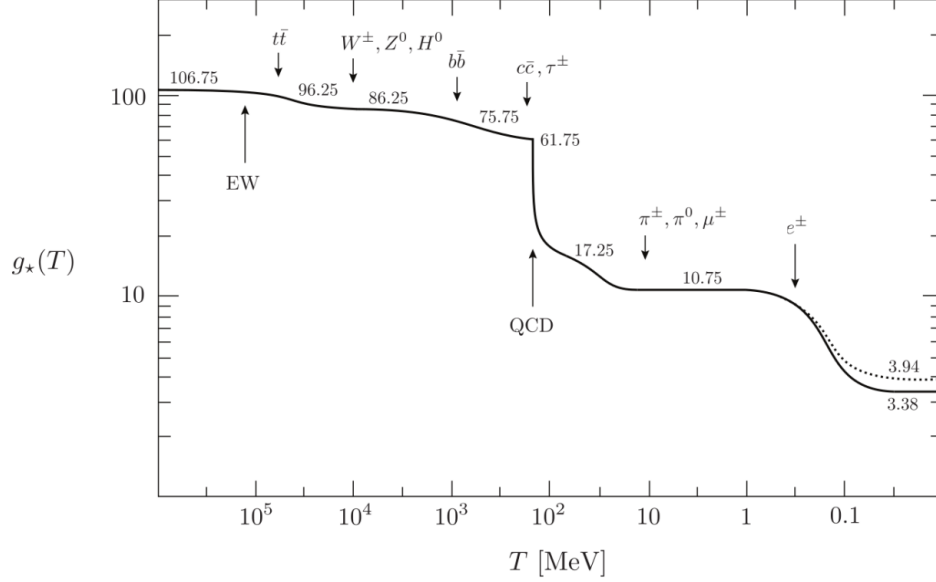
$$g_{*,s} = 2 + 6 \cdot \frac{7}{8} \cdot \frac{4}{11} = 3.91$$

Convenient to define

$$N_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\rho_\nu}{\frac{7}{8} \left( \frac{4}{11} \right)^{4/3} \rho_\gamma} \quad \text{“effective number of neutrino species”}$$

Calculation so far:  $N_{\text{eff}} = 3$

- ↳ Assumes instant decoupling
- ↳ More realistic: Neutrinos benefit slightly from  $e^+e^-$  annihilation
- ↳ Detailed calculation:  $N_{\text{eff}} = 3.0440 \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} g_* = 3.38 \\ g_{*,s} = 3.94 \end{matrix}$



Hubble rate during RD:  $H = 1.66\sqrt{g_*}\frac{T^2}{M_{\text{pl}}} \rightarrow$  highly sensitive to contribution from  $\nu$ s

### 7.3 Dark radiation

Consider particle  $N$  that decouples from thermal bath at  $T_{N,\text{dec}}$

$\Rightarrow$  Hot relic for  $m_N \ll T_{N,\text{dec}}$

$$T_{N,\text{eff}} = \left( \frac{g_*}{g_{*,\text{dec}}} \right)^{1/3} T_\gamma$$

$$\rho_N = \xi \frac{g_N}{2} \left( \frac{g_*}{g_{*,\text{dec}}} \right)^{4/3} \rho_\gamma \quad \text{with } \xi = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{bosons} \\ 7/8 & \text{fermions} \end{cases}$$

Contribution to  $N_{\text{eff}} = \underbrace{N_{\text{eff, SM}}}_{3.0440} + \Delta N_{\text{eff}}$

$$\Delta N_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\rho_N}{\frac{7}{8} \left(\frac{4}{11}\right)^{4/3} \rho_\gamma} = \frac{4}{7} \xi g_N \left( \frac{11}{4} \cdot \frac{g_*}{g_{*,\text{dec}}} \right)^{4/3}$$

(before neutrino decoupling)

Consider a Majorana fermion (right-handed neutrino)

with  $\xi = \frac{7}{8}$ ,  $g_N = 2$ ,  $T_{\text{dec}} > 100 \text{ GeV}$  ( $g_{*,\text{dec}} \approx 100$ )

$$\Rightarrow \Delta N_{\text{eff}} \approx 0.05$$

↓

Important target for cosmology

## 8 Big Bang Nucleosynthesis (BBN)

→ Formation of bound nuclei from protons and neutrons

→ Happens shortly after  $\nu$  decoupling

$$50 \text{ keV} \lesssim T \lesssim 1 \text{ MeV} \xrightarrow{\text{RD}} 1 \text{ s} \lesssim t \lesssim 400 \text{ s}$$

→ Earliest time probed by observations

### 8.1 Qualitative picture

- At  $T > 1 \text{ MeV}$  reactions like  $p + e \longleftrightarrow n + \nu_e$  are in equilibrium
- At  $T \approx 1 \text{ MeV}$ , neutrons freeze out, so the only relevant process is  $n \rightarrow p + e + \bar{\nu}_e$
- At  $T \lesssim 0.1 \text{ MeV}$  it becomes favourable to form bound states such as  $n + p \leftrightarrow D + \gamma$  (binding energy:  $B_0 = 2.2 \text{ MeV}$ )
- Only light elements (H, He, Li, Be) can be formed  
 $\Rightarrow$  Almost all neutrinos end up in  ${}^4\text{He}$  ( $B_{{}^4\text{He}} = 28.3 \text{ MeV}$ )

### 8.2 Step 1: Neutron freeze-out

Equilibrium at  $T \sim 1 \text{ MeV}$ :

$$n_A = g_A \left( \frac{m_A T}{2\pi} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{(\mu_A - m_A)/T} = e^{\mu_A/T} n_A^{\mu=0} \quad \text{where } A = p, n$$

$e^\pm, \nu, \bar{\nu}$  relativistic  $\Rightarrow \mu$  negligible

$$\Rightarrow \mu_p = \mu_n$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{n_n}{n_p} = \left( \frac{m_n}{m_p} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{-\Delta m/T} \approx e^{-\Delta m/T} \quad \text{with } \Delta m = m_n - m_p = 1.3 \text{ MeV}$$

Neutrons freeze out when  $\Gamma_{p \leftrightarrow n} < H$

Dimensional analysis:  $H \sim \frac{T^2}{M_{\text{pl}}}, \quad \Gamma \sim G_F^2 T^5$

$$\Rightarrow T_n \sim (M_{\text{pl}} \cdot G_F^2)^{-\frac{1}{3}} = 0.8 \text{ MeV}$$

Full calculation:

$$T_n = 0.75 \text{ MeV}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{n_n}{n_p}(T = T_n) = 0.18$$



Comment:  $T_n \approx \Delta m$  great coincidence!

↳ Present universe would look very different for  $T_n \gg \Delta m$  or  $T_n \ll \Delta m$

### 8.3 Step 2: Neutron decay

Shortly after neutron freeze-out:  $e^+e^-$  annihilation

$$\Rightarrow g_s^* = 3.94 = \text{const}$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta_B = \frac{n_p + n_n}{n_\gamma} \sim \frac{n_B}{3} = \text{const}$$

(baryon-photon ratio, typically  $\eta_B \sim 10^{-10}$ )

But  $X_n = \frac{n_n}{n_p + n_n}$  changes because of neutron decays:

$$X_n(T) \stackrel{T \leq T_n}{=} e^{-t/\tau_n} X_n(T_n) \quad \text{with } \tau_n = 880 \text{ s}$$

### 8.4 Step 3: Deuterium bottleneck

Direct production of  ${}^4\text{He}$  from  $2p + 2n$  strongly suppressed

$\Rightarrow$  Need to produce D first

Consider reaction  $p + n \longleftrightarrow D + \gamma \Rightarrow \mu_p + \mu_n = \mu_D \quad (\mu_p = 0)$

$$\frac{n_D}{n_p \cdot n_n} = \frac{e^{\mu_D}}{\underbrace{e^{\mu_p} e^{\mu_n}}_{=1}} \frac{n_D^{\mu=0}}{n_p^{\mu=0} n_n^{\mu=0}} = \frac{g_D}{g_p g_n} \left( \frac{2\pi m_D}{m_n m_p T} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{\frac{m_n + m_p - m_D}{T}}$$

Using  $g_D = 3, \quad g_p = g_n = 2, \quad m_n \approx m_p \approx \frac{m_D}{2}, \quad m_n + m_p - m_D = B_D$

$$\frac{n_D}{n_p \cdot n_n} = \frac{3}{4} \left( \frac{4\pi}{m_p T} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{B_D/T}$$

Using  $X_n(1 - X_n) = \frac{n_p \cdot n_n}{n_B^2}$  and  $n_B = \eta_B n_\gamma$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{n_D}{n_B} = \frac{3}{4} X_n (1 - X_n) \eta_B n_\gamma \left( \frac{4\pi}{m_p T} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{B_D/T} \sim 10^{-10} \left( \frac{T}{m_p} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{B_D/T}$$

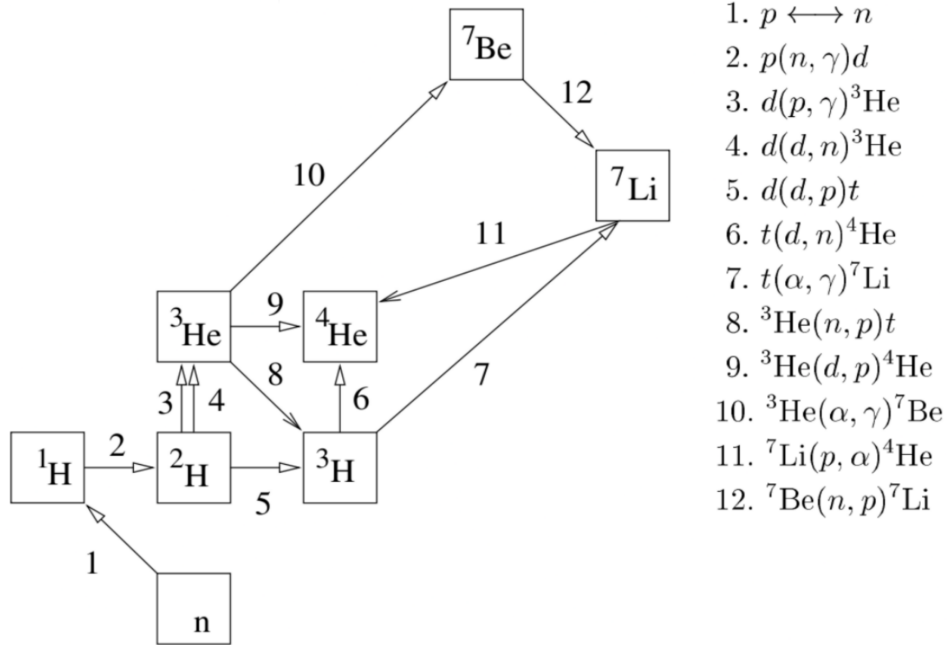
For  $T \gtrsim 100 \text{ keV}$  :  $\frac{n_D}{n_B} \ll 1$

D production efficient  $\Leftrightarrow \frac{n_D}{n_B} = 1$

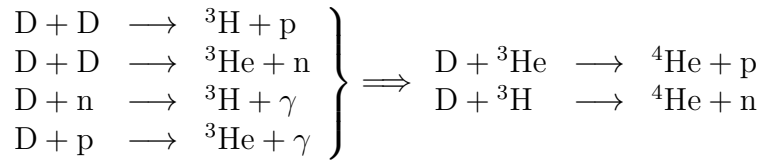
$$\Rightarrow \frac{B_D}{T} = -\ln \left[ 10^{-10} \left( \frac{T}{m_p} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right] \sim 30 \Rightarrow T_D \approx 80 \text{ keV} \Rightarrow t_D \approx 150 \text{ s}$$

## 8.5 Step 4: Deuterium burning

For  $T < T_D$  : Chain of nuclear reactions



Primordial nuclear reactions



$\Rightarrow$  Almost all neutrons end up in  $^4\text{He}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{n_{^4\text{He}}}{n_B} = \frac{1}{2} X_n(T = T_D) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-t_D/\tau_n} X_n(T = T_n) = 0.063 \approx \frac{1}{16}$$

$$Y_p = \frac{\rho_{^4\text{He}}}{\rho_B} \approx 4 \frac{n_{^4\text{He}}}{n_B} = 0.25$$

Fraction of  ${}^4\text{He}$  remains constant until star formation starts, which produces heavier elements (e.g.  ${}^4\text{He} + {}^4\text{He} + {}^4\text{He} \rightarrow {}^{12}\text{C}$ )

In some regions with low star formation rates  $Y_p(\text{today}) \approx Y_p(\text{BBN})$   
 $\Rightarrow$  Possible to directly measure  $Y_p$

Result:  $Y_p = 0.245 \pm 0.003 \rightarrow$  Spectacular success!

## 8.6 Determining $\eta_B$

$Y_p$  depends on  $\eta_B$  only logarithmically through  $T_D \rightarrow$  insufficient for measuring  $\eta_B$

Instead: Consider end of D burning

$$\Gamma_D = n_D \cdot \langle \sigma v \rangle_D < H$$

$\hookrightarrow$  Complicated nuclear physics  $\rightarrow$  can be measured

Freeze-out happens for  $T_{\text{fo}} \approx 65 \text{ keV}$

$$\Rightarrow n_D(T_{\text{fo}}) = \frac{H(T_{\text{fo}})}{\langle \sigma v \rangle_D(T_{\text{fo}})} \approx 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

Using  $n_p = n_B - 4n_{{}^4\text{He}} \approx \frac{3}{4}n_B = \frac{3}{4}\eta_B n_\gamma$

$$\frac{D}{H} = \frac{n_D}{n_p} = \frac{1}{\eta_B} \cdot \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{n_D(T_{\text{fo}})}{n_\gamma(T_{\text{fo}})} = \frac{1}{\eta_B} \cdot 1.6 \cdot 10^{-14}$$

Observations:  $\frac{D}{H} = (2.55 \pm 0.03) \cdot 10^{-5}$   
 $\Rightarrow \eta_B = (6.2 \pm 0.2) \cdot 10^{-10}$

$\eta_B$  remains constant until today  $\Rightarrow \Omega_B h^2 = \frac{m_p \cdot \eta_B \cdot n_{\gamma,0}}{\rho_c / h^2} = 0.022 \pm 0.001$

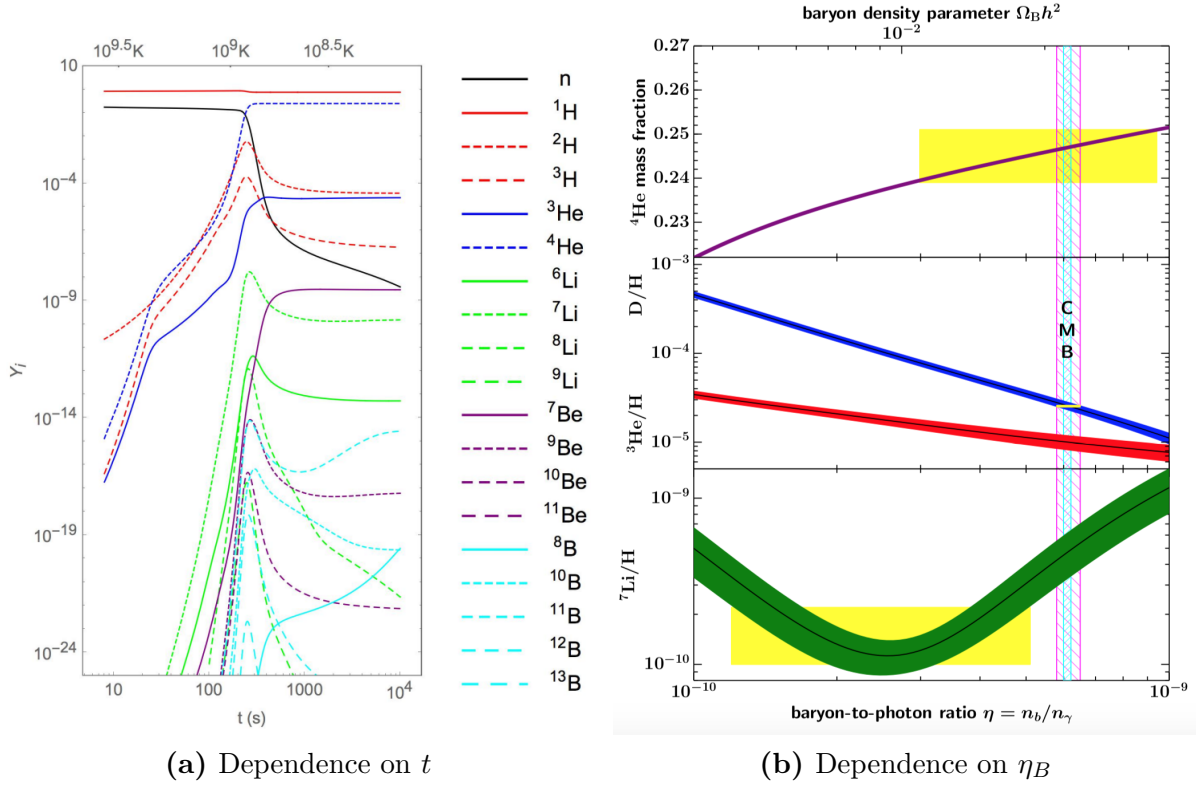
$\hookrightarrow$  Baryons only constitute  $\sim 4\%$  of the energy density of the present universe!

Comment: Also possible to predict  $\frac{{}^7\text{Li}}{H}$

$\hookrightarrow$  Inferred value of  $\eta_B$  too small

$\hookrightarrow$  Theory uncertainty? Measurement error? New physics?

Note: BBN powerful probe of physics beyond Standard Model



Example:  $Y_p$  very sensitive to Hubble rate at  $T \sim 1 \text{ MeV}$

$\Rightarrow$  Confirms SM prediction  $N_{\text{eff}} = 3.0440$

$\Rightarrow$  Upper bound:  $\Delta N_{\text{eff}} < 0.4$  (95% C.L.)

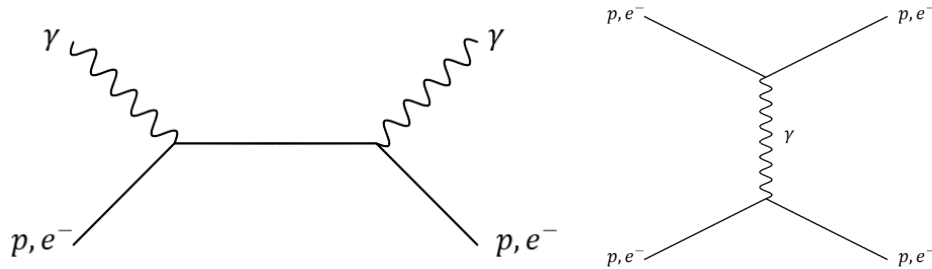
$\Rightarrow$  Excludes additional light particles in thermal equilibrium

## 9 Recombination

↳ Formation of neutral hydrogen (neglect He for today)

Universe at  $T = 1 \text{ eV}$ :

- $p, e^-, \gamma$  tightly coupled:



- Equilibrium between free particles and bound H:

$$e^- + p \longleftrightarrow H + \gamma$$

$$n_i^{\text{eq}} = g_i \left( \frac{m_i T}{2\pi} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{(\mu_i - m_i)/T} \quad \text{with } \mu_p + \mu_e = \mu_H$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\left( \frac{n_H}{n_e \cdot n_p} \right)_{\text{eq}}}_{n_H/n_e^2} = \underbrace{\frac{g_H}{g_e \cdot g_p}}_{=\frac{4}{2 \cdot 2}} \underbrace{\left( \frac{m_H}{m_e m_p} \frac{2\pi}{T} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}}}_{\approx 1/m_e} \underbrace{e^{(m_p + m_e - m_H)/T}}_{\substack{\exp(B_H/T) \\ \text{with } B_H = 13.6 \text{ eV}}} \quad (n_e = n_p \text{ from charge neutrality})$$

$$\Rightarrow \left( \frac{n_H}{n_e^2} \right)_{\text{eq}} = \left( \frac{2\pi}{m_e T} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{B_H/T}$$

Convenient to define

$$X_e = \frac{n_e}{n_p + n_H} \quad (\text{free electron fraction})$$

Note:

$$n_p + n_H = 0.75 \cdot \eta_B \cdot n_\gamma \quad \left( n_\gamma = \frac{2\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} T^3 \right)$$

↓

approximate fraction of H (rest is He)

$$\Rightarrow 1 - X_e = \frac{n_p + n_H - n_e}{n_p + n_H}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1 - X_e}{X_e^2} = \frac{n_H}{n_e^2} (n_p + n_H)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\left( \frac{1 - X_e}{X_e^2} \right)_{\text{eq}} = \frac{2\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} \left( \frac{2\pi T}{m_e} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{B_H/T} \cdot 0.75 \cdot \eta_b} \quad (\text{Saha equation})$$

For  $T \gtrsim B_H$ :      rhs tiny (remember:  $\eta_B \sim 10^{-10}$ )  $\Rightarrow X_e \approx 1$

For  $T \ll B_H$ :      rhs increases  $\Rightarrow X_e$  decreases

Recombination happens when

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{B_H}{T} &\approx -\log \left[ \frac{2\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} 0.75 \eta_b \left( \frac{2\pi T}{m_e} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right] \\ &= \underbrace{-\log \left[ \frac{2\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} 0.75 \eta_b \left( \frac{2\pi B_H}{m_e} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right]}_{=35.9} + \underbrace{\frac{3}{2} \log \frac{B_H}{T}}_{\text{can be neglected}} \\ \Rightarrow T_{\text{rec}} &\approx 0.38 \text{ eV} \\ T_{\text{rec}} &= T_0 (1 + z_{\text{rec}}) \Rightarrow z_{\text{rec}} \approx 1600 \end{aligned}$$

Numerical solution:  $T = 0.4 \text{ eV} : X_e = 0.999$   
 $T = 0.3 \text{ eV} : X_e = 0.15$

$T_{\text{rec}} \ll B_H$  because  $n_\gamma \gg n_e, n_p$

$\Rightarrow$  Enough high-energy photons in tail of distribution to keep H ionized

$\Rightarrow$  Recombination happened after M-R equality

$$\Rightarrow t_{\text{rec}} = \frac{2}{3} H(T_{\text{rec}})^{-1} = \frac{2}{3H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_M (1 + z_{\text{rec}})^3}} \approx 2.6 \cdot 10^5 \text{ years}$$

## 9.1 Photon decoupling

As long as  $X_e \approx 1$ , photons experience frequent interactions:

$$e^- + \gamma \longleftrightarrow e^- + \gamma$$

$$\sigma_T = \frac{8\pi}{3} \frac{\alpha^2}{m_e^2} \approx 0.67 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2 \quad (\text{Thomson cross section})$$

$$\Gamma_\gamma = n_e \sigma_T = X_e \sigma_T (n_p + n_H)$$

With decreasing  $X_e$ ,  $\Gamma_\gamma$  decreases as well

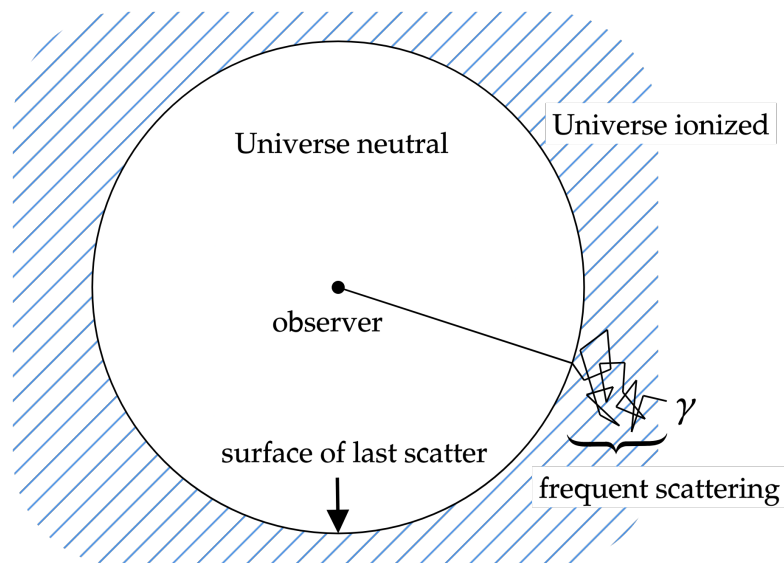
$\Rightarrow$  Photons decouple for  $\Gamma_\gamma(T_{\text{dec}}) = H(T_{\text{dec}})$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{MD: } H(T_{\text{dec}}) &= H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_M} \left( \frac{T_{\text{dec}}}{T_0} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \\
\Rightarrow X_e(T_{\text{dec}}) T_{\text{dec}}^{3/2} &= \frac{\pi^2}{2\zeta(3)} \frac{H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_M}}{0.75 \eta_B \sigma_T T_0^{3/2}} \\
&\downarrow \\
&\text{Can be estimated from Saha eq.} \\
\Rightarrow T_{\text{dec}} &\approx 0.27 \text{ eV} \Rightarrow z_{\text{dec}} \approx 1100 \Rightarrow t_{\text{dec}} \approx 380000 \text{ yrs}
\end{aligned}$$

Many refinements needed:

- Electrons not in perfect equilibrium at  $T_{\text{dec}}$   
 $\Rightarrow$  Need to solve Boltzmann equation to get  $X_e$
- Need to include excited hydrogen ( $2s, 2p$ ) in calculation

But final result robust, because  $X_e$  drops exponentially  $\Rightarrow$  photon decoupling very sudden



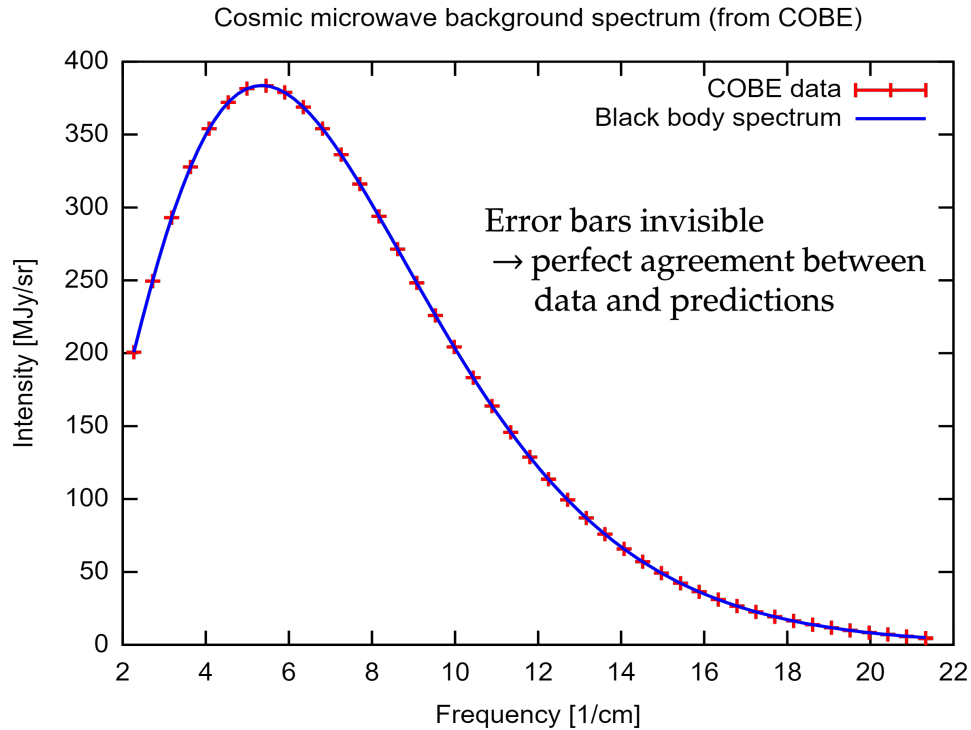
We see the surface of last scatter in every direction at a distance of  $\sim 13.5$  Gyr

Beyond it, the Universe is intransparent

The photons emitted from this surface form the CMB

## 9.2 Cosmic Microwave Background

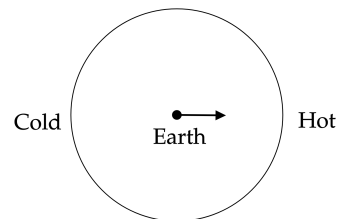
↳ First discovered in 1965 by accident



$$T_{\text{CMB}} = 2.7255 \pm 0.0006 \text{ K}$$

When seen from the Earth,  $T_{\text{CMB}}$  is not the same in every direction

↳ Doppler effect due to relative motion between Earth and CMB



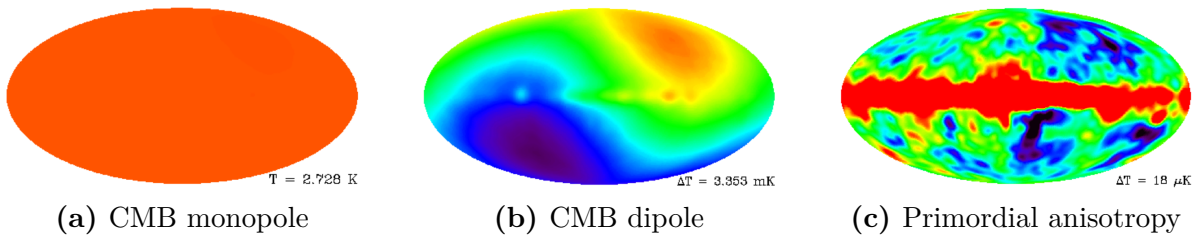
$$p_{\text{obs}}(\underbrace{\vec{n}}_{\substack{\text{unit} \\ \text{vector}}}) = \frac{p}{\gamma(1 - \vec{n} \cdot \vec{v})} \stackrel{v \ll 1}{\approx} p(1 + \vec{n} \cdot \vec{v})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\delta T(\vec{n})}{T} = \frac{p_{\text{obs}}(\vec{n}) - p}{p} = \vec{n} \cdot \vec{v} \Rightarrow \text{dipole anisotropy}$$

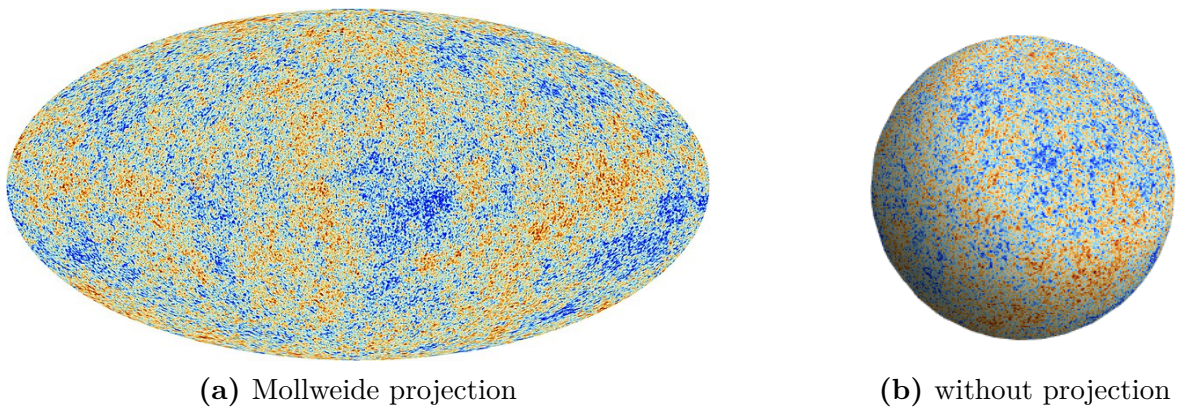
Fit to data gives  $v = 368 \text{ km/s}$



→ Subtract dipole to reveal primordial anisotropy



Removing galactic backgrounds:



Conclusion: Universe is not perfectly homogeneous at  $T = T_{\text{dec}}$   
 $\Rightarrow$  need to study perturbations

Summary:

