

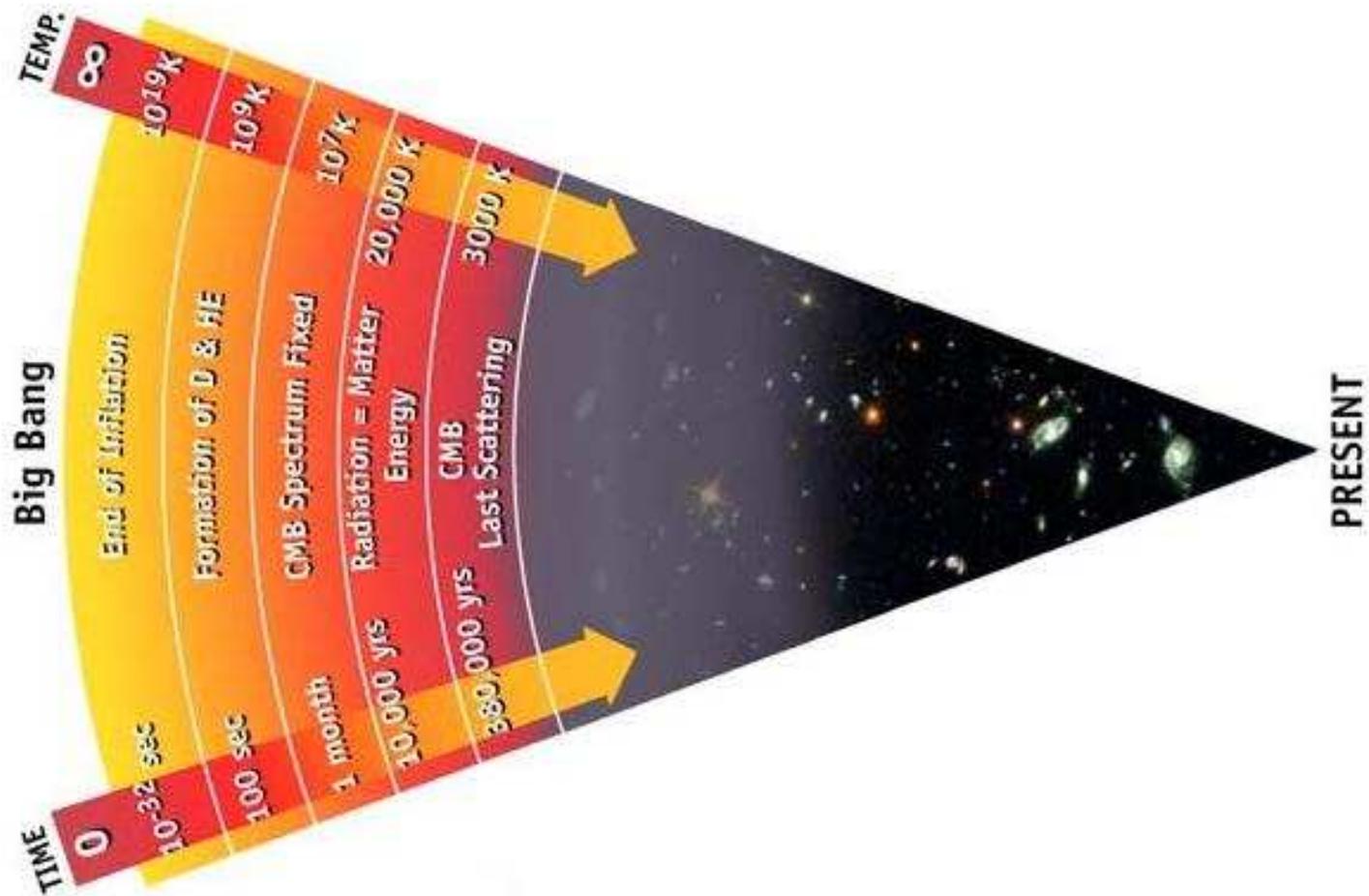
# **Particle Physics of the early Universe**

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**Spring semester 2014**

# EARLY UNIVERSE

# Thermal history of the Universe

Today you all got used to pictures like this



HOW DID WE LEARN ALL THAT?

# Cosmological model of Einstein

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- **Einstein** applies GR to the whole Universe **assuming** spatial homogeneity and isotropy (for isotropy there were observational evidence, for homogeneity — it was a bold extrapolation, due to Hubble's observations of fainter and fainter “nebulae”) 1917 – early 1920s

- The metric is given by

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + \underbrace{R^2(d\chi^2 + \sin^2 \chi d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \chi \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)}_{3\text{-sphere}}$$

– static cylinder

- Closed Universe – finite total volume  $V = 2\pi^2 R^3$

# Cosmological model of Einstein

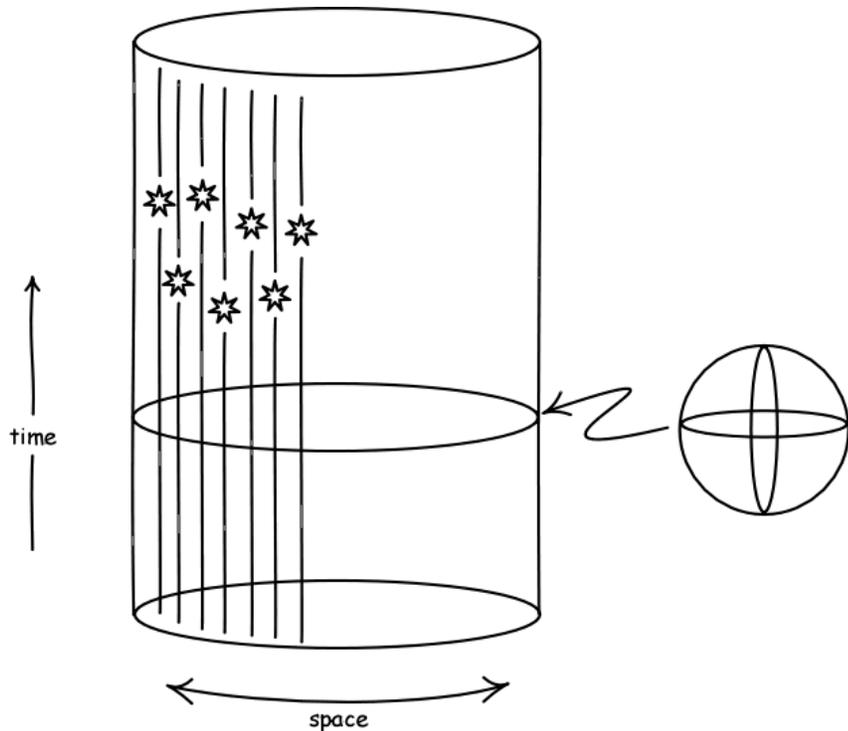
- Plug this metric into the Einstein's equation:

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

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

- The solution exists if cosmological constant and matter are related as

$$\Lambda = \frac{1}{R^2}, \quad \rho = \frac{2}{8\pi GR^2}$$



- Total mass of the Universe  $M = \rho \cdot 3\pi^2 R^3 = \frac{\pi R}{2G}$
- Everything is a function of density that can be measured experimentally  $\Rightarrow$  **full solution of the Universe constructed?**

- **de Sitter** (1917) finds a different solution

$$ds^2 = -R^2 \cos^2 \chi dt^2 + \underbrace{R^2 (d\chi^2 + \sin^2 \chi d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \chi \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)}_{\text{3-sphere}}$$

- To satisfy GR equations this requires

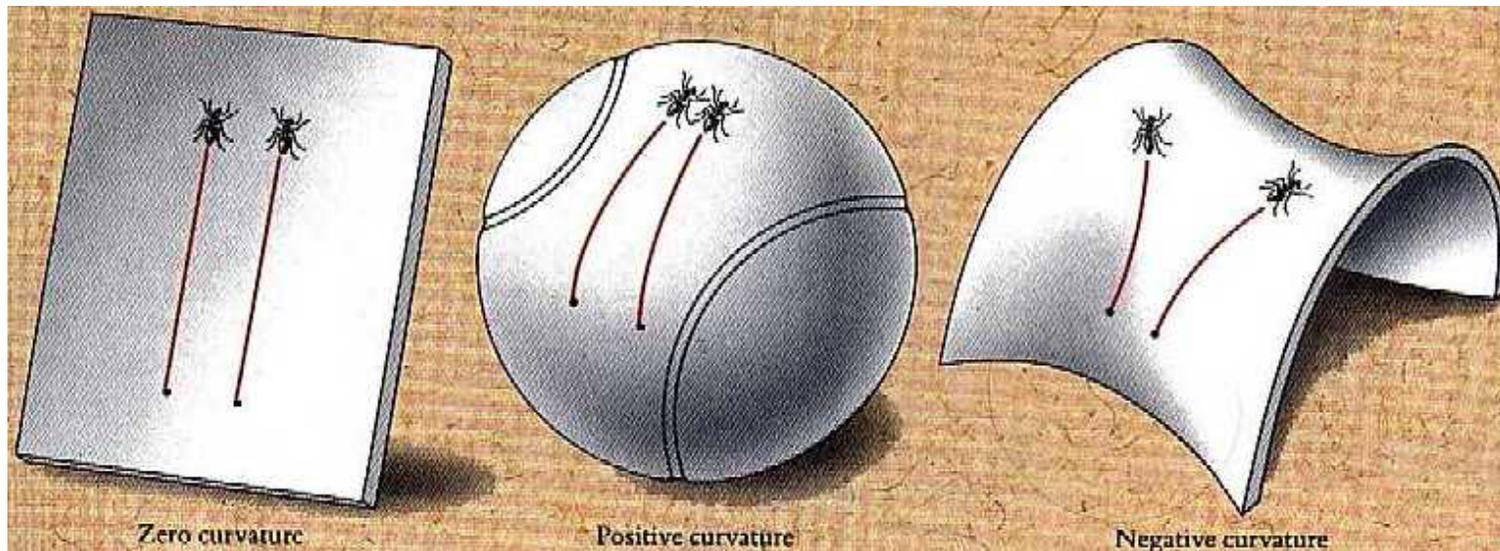
$$\Lambda = \frac{3}{R^2}, \quad \rho = 0$$

– curved Universe without matter??

- Friedmann write the general ansatz for **homogeneous** and **isotropic** metric

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t) \left( \frac{d\chi^2}{1 - \kappa\chi^2} + \chi^2 d\theta^2 + \chi^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 \right), \quad \kappa = -1, 0, 1$$

- Three homogeneous and isotropic spaces ( $\kappa$  – sign of curvature)



## Cosmological model continued

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- Plug this metric into the Einstein's equation, using the general form of the stress-energy tensor being

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

- The Einstein's equations relate “matter” (some functions  $\rho(t)$  and  $p(t)$ ) with the dynamics of the **scale factor** – Friedmann equation:

$$\frac{\dot{a}^2(t)}{a^2(t)} \equiv H^2(t) = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho - \frac{\kappa}{a^2}$$

1922-1924

- Second Friedmann equation:

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

- Energy conservation:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -3H(\rho + p) = -3\frac{\dot{a}}{a}(\rho + p)$$

- Lemaître rediscovers these equations
- Main predictions: the Universe is expanding. Static Universe would require very specific equations of state ( $\rho = -\kappa \frac{3}{8\pi G} R_{\text{static}}^2$  and  $\rho = -3p$ ). Such a solution will be nevertheless **unstable**

Problems 1a-1c

# Cosmology in a couple of words

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- **Matter-dominated Universe:**  $p = 0$  and  $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -3H\rho$  or  $\rho a^3 = \text{const}$  and  $a \propto t^{2/3}$
- **Radiation-dominated Universe:**  $p = \frac{1}{3}\rho$  and  $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -4H\rho$  or  $\rho a^4 = \text{const}$  and  $a \propto t^{1/2}$
- Temperature  $T \propto a^{-1}$ . In radiation-dominated epoch  $\rho = \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_{\text{EFF}} T^4$
- **Einstein's  $\Lambda$ -term:**  $\rho(t) = -p(t) = \text{const}$ ,  $a = e^{\sqrt{\frac{\Lambda}{3}}t}$
- Hubble equation — interplay between **kinetic energy**  $E_k = \frac{\dot{a}^2}{2}$  and **potential energy**  $E_p = -\frac{GM}{a(t)}$ :

$$\frac{\dot{a}^2}{2} - \frac{G\frac{4\pi}{3}\rho(t)a^3(t)}{a(t)} = -\frac{\kappa}{2}$$

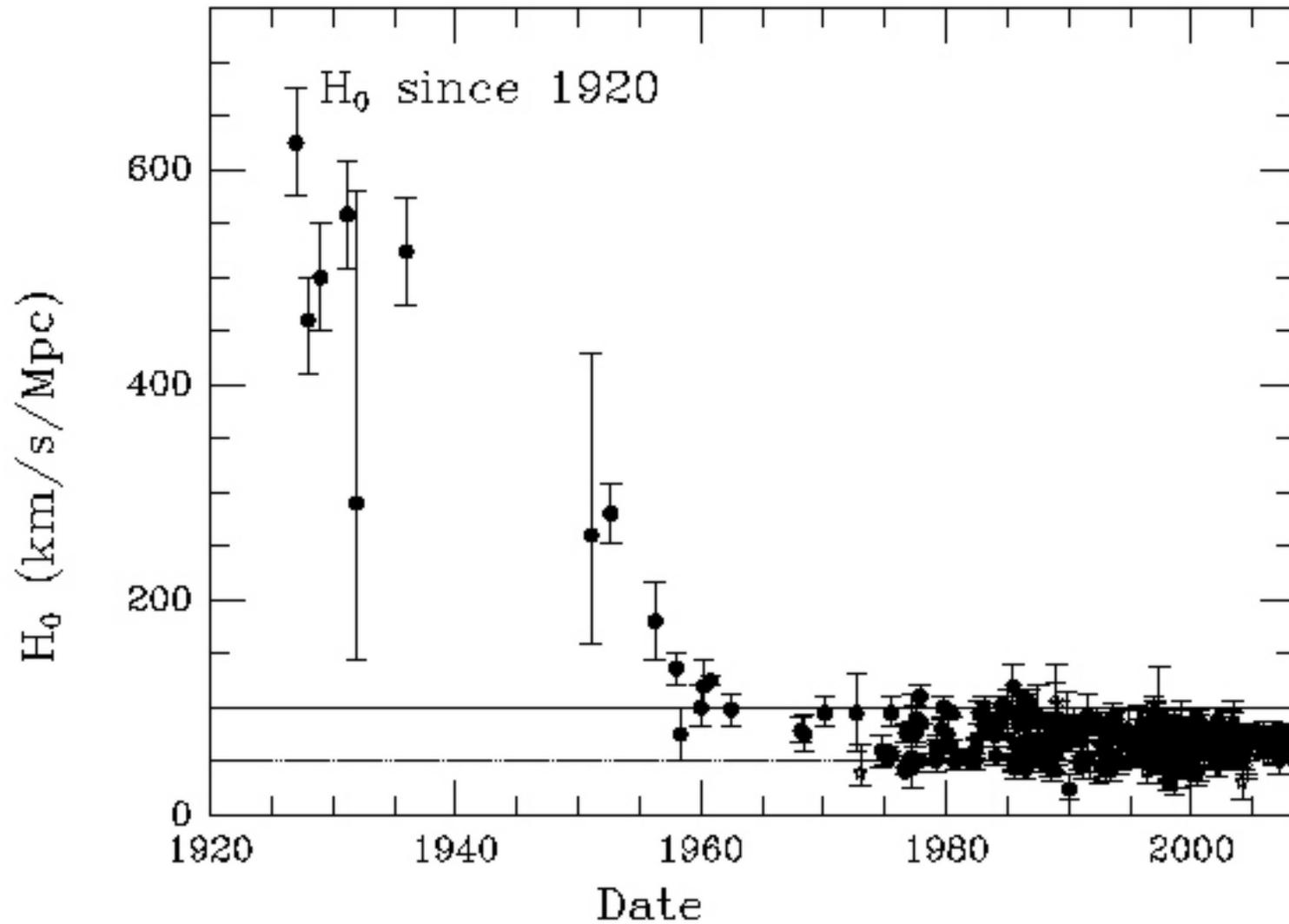
# Hubble expansion

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- Slipher discovers redshifts of the spectral lines in the nearby galaxies . De Sitter speculates for the first time that this can be due to cosmological expansion in his model 1912-1913
- **Hubble** discovers that “spiral nebulae” are far from us (M31, M33) 1925
- Hubble estimates the distance to the nearby galaxies and establishes redshift-distance relation 1926

$$cz = H_0 r$$

# Hubble constant history



<https://www.cfa.harvard.edu/~dfabricant/huchra/hubble>

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Expansion of the Universe – **the first pillar of cosmology**

# Reminder: redshift

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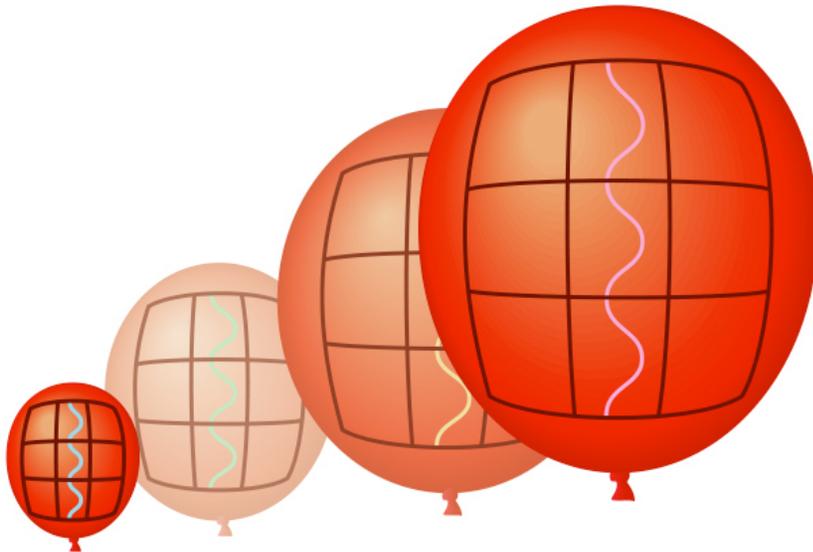
Universe stretches:

$$1 + z \equiv \frac{\lambda_{\text{observed}}}{\lambda_{\text{emitted}}} = \frac{a(t_{\text{obs}})}{a(t_{\text{emit}})}$$

Doppler effect:  
a galaxy is receding

$$1 + z \equiv \frac{\lambda_{\text{observed}}}{\lambda_{\text{emitted}}} = \sqrt{\frac{1 + v/c}{1 - v/c}}$$

where Hubble velocity  
 $v = H_0 \times \text{distance}$



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# The initial state of the Universe

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**The initial state of the Universe** remained a problem

- If Universe is filled with cosmological constant – its energy density does not change
- If Universe is filled with anything with non-negative pressure: the density decreases as the Universe expands

**In the past** the Universe was becoming denser and denser,  $\rho \propto \frac{1}{t^2}$ ,  
 $\implies$  ultradense cold state of the initial Universe?

**High density** baryonic matter — a Universe-size **neutron star**?  
Neutrons cannot decay anymore ( $n \rightarrow p + e + \bar{\nu}_e$ ) as there are no available Fermi levels for fermions. The state is stable and remains such until cosmological singularity ( $\rho \propto 1/t^n$ )

Problems 1c,2a,5a

# The Universe in the past

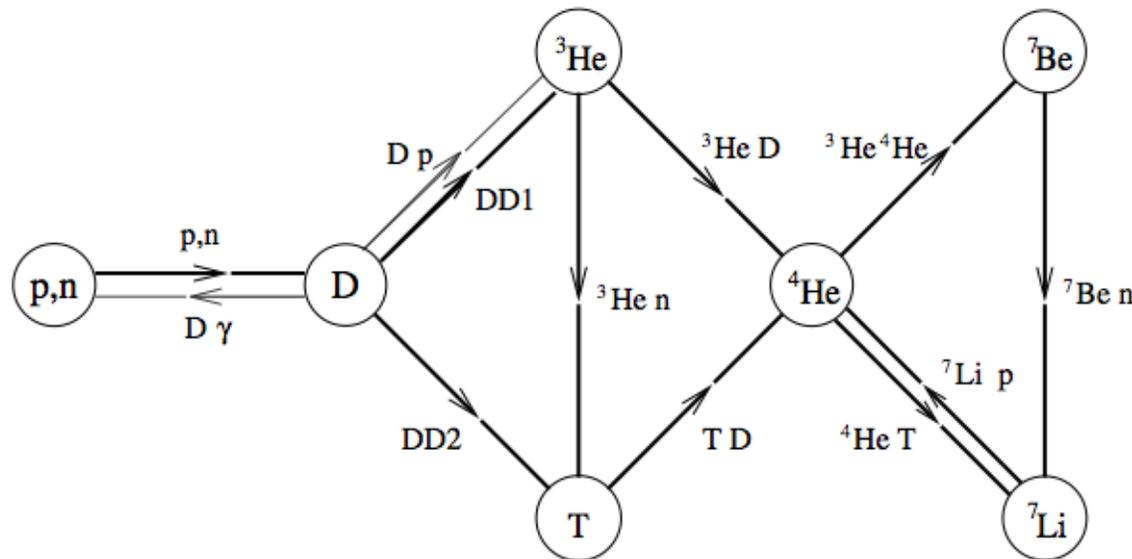
The origin of elements (Hydrogen, Helium, metals) remained a challenging problem

1920s-1930s

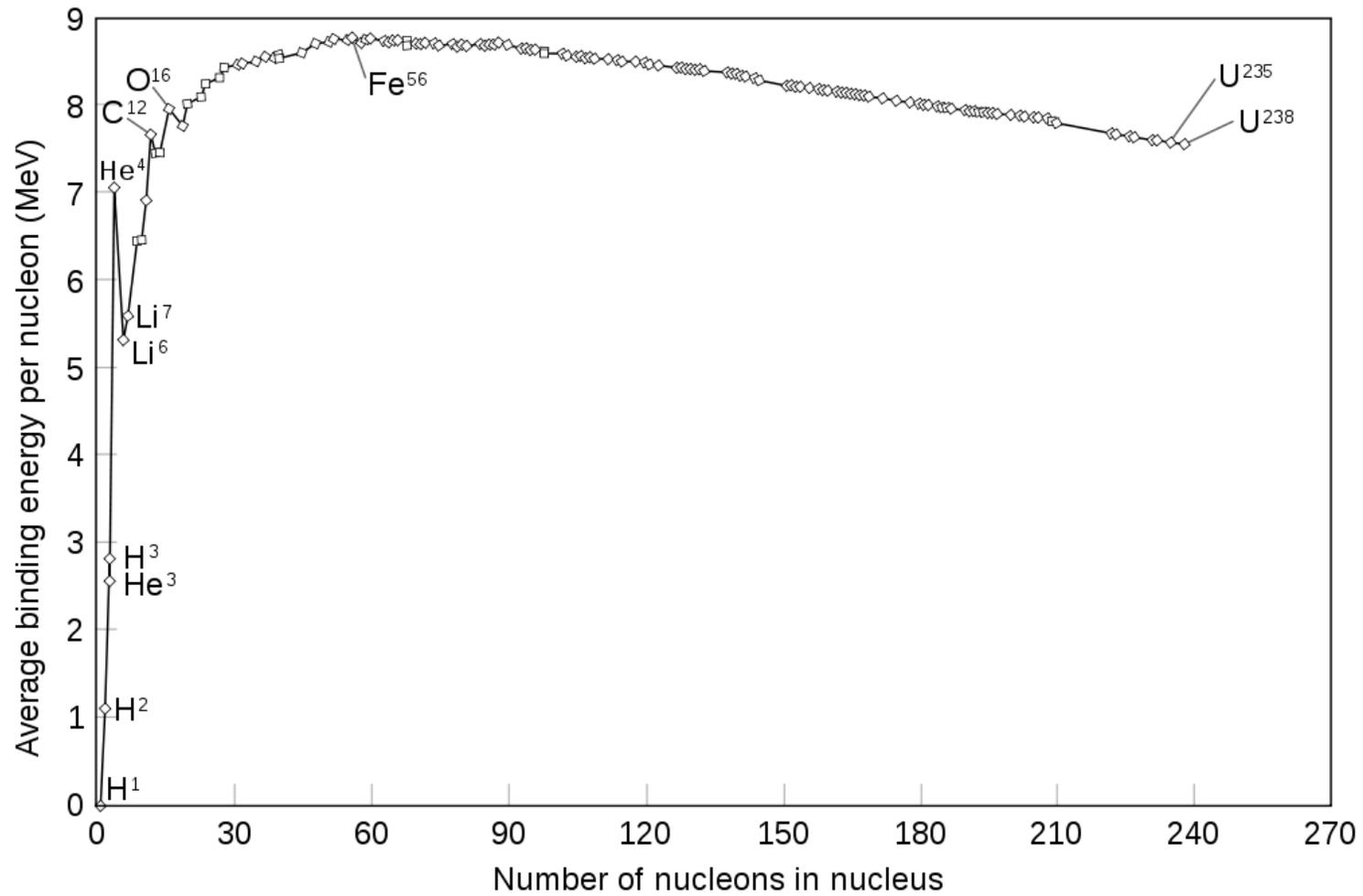
**Ultradense** ( $\rho_n \sim 1\text{g/cm}^3$ ) **neutron star** would mean that **no hydrogen is left** (as soon as density has dropped to allow neutron decay  $n \rightarrow p + e + \bar{\nu}_e$ , each proton is bombarded by many neutrons so that  $p + n \rightarrow d + \gamma$ ,  $d + n \rightarrow t + \gamma$ )

See e.g. review by Zel'dovich, Section 13

Zel'dovich in Wikipedia or here



# Binding energy



# Nucleosynthesis

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- If (as people thought) the density of plasma, needed for nuclear reactions to take place was  $\rho \sim 10^7 \text{ g/cm}^3 \Rightarrow$  very rapid expansion of the Universe (age  $\sim 10^{-2} \text{ sec}$ ). Not enough to establish thermal equilibrium?

Paper by  
Gamow (1946)

- **Gamow suggested** nuclear reactions take place because the Universe is **hot** rather than “ultradense”

Paper by  
Gamow (1948)

- Consider the plasma **temperature**  $T_d \sim 10^9 \text{ K}$  ( $\sim 100 \text{ keV}$ ) (order of the binding energy of nuclei)

- He computed the total energy density of radiation as

$$\rho_{\text{rad}} = \sigma_{\text{SB}} T^4 = 8.4 \text{ g/cm}^3 \left( \frac{T}{10^9 \text{ K}} \right)^4$$

- Gamow then assumed that the energy density of the Universe is

# Nucleosynthesis

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dominated by radiation and estimated its age as

$$\rho_{\text{rad}} = \frac{3}{32\pi G_N} \frac{1}{t^2} \quad \text{or} \quad t [\text{sec}] \sim \frac{1}{(T [\text{MeV}])^2}$$

- The age of the Universe at  $T_d = 10^9$  K is equal to  $t_d \sim 10^2$  sec
- Gamow estimates the density of matter by demanding that the time between collisions is equal to the **age of the Universe**  $t_d$ :

$$\underbrace{(v n_b \sigma_{p+n \rightarrow d+\gamma})^{-1}}_{\text{time between } p\text{-}n\text{ collisions}} \sim t_d$$

- Gamow knew that the cross-section  $\sigma \sim 10^{-29}$  cm<sup>2</sup>, and computed thermal velocity  $v \sim \sqrt{\frac{T}{m}} \Rightarrow$  one gets  $n_b^{(i)} \sim 10^{18}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> and therefore  $\rho_b^{(i)} \sim 10^{-6}$  g/cm<sup>3</sup>  $\ll 8.4$  g/cm<sup>3</sup>  $\Rightarrow$  **the Universe was radiation dominated!**

# Nucleosynthesis

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- Cross-section is the effective area that each incoming particle "sees" – the probability of some scattering event.
- At this temperature,  $T_d \sim 10^9$  K the number of photons is given by

$$n_\gamma = \frac{2\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} T_d^3 \approx 10^{28} \text{ cm}^{-3} \left( \frac{T}{10^9 \text{ K}} \right)^3 \quad (1)$$

- Prediction of the Gamow's theory:

$$\text{Baryon-to-photon ratio } \eta_B \equiv \frac{n_b}{n_\gamma} \sim 10^{-10}$$

# Relic radiation

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- Second prediction: the Universe **today** should have a bath of thermal photons, left from that time
- Baryon-to-photon ratio  $\eta_B$  is constant with time. Indeed,  $na^3 \approx \text{const}$  and  $Ta \approx \text{const}$  (indeed, for radiation  $\rho \propto T^4$  and  $\rho \propto a^{-4}$ )
- What is the temperature of radiation bath today? All matter today was considered to be baryonic. So  $H_0^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho_b = \frac{8\pi G}{3}m_{\text{proton}}n_b^{(0)}$ . Hubble constant estimates were higher than today ( $\sim 100\text{km/sec/Mpc}$ ). The matter density was then  $\rho_M = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G_N} \sim 10^{-29}\text{g/cm}^3 \Rightarrow n_b^{(0)} \sim 10^{-5}\text{cm}^{-3}$
- Therefore  $T^{(0)} \sim 10^9\text{K} \left(\frac{n_b^{(0)}}{n_b^{(i)}}\right)^{1/3} \sim 20\text{K}$
- In reality the number density of baryons today is  $n_b^{(0)} \sim 10^{-7}\text{cm}^{-3}$  which would give  $T_{cmb} \sim 5\text{K}$  based on the above estimates
- $\Rightarrow$ the Universe today **should be filled with radiation** whose spectrum peaks at  $\lambda = \frac{2.9\text{mm}\cdot\text{K}}{T}$

# Formation of structures

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- The Universe was hot (**radiation-dominated** at epoch of nucleosynthesis. But the density of radiation dropped faster than the density of matter:

$$\frac{\rho_{rad}}{\rho_b} \sim \frac{1}{a}$$

⇒ **matter-radiation equality** (at  $T \sim 10^3$  K!)

- The growth of Jeans instabilities did not start until that matter-dominated epoch (see below)
- Gamow estimates the size of the instability as

$$k_B T_{eq} \sim \frac{G_N \rho_{matter} R^3}{R}$$

Putting in the  $T_{eq} \sim 10^3$  K one gets  $R \sim 1$  kpc similar to a typical galaxy size(!)

Paper by  
Gamow (1948)

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**Hot Big Bang theory was born**

- CMB
- Baryon-to-photon ratio from BBN and CMB (independently)
- Primordial abundance of light elements. Most notably,  ${}^4\text{He}$

# Challenges to Hot Big Bang

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In **1950s** this was not so obvious!

- There was no relict radiation from recombination
- You should get about 30% of Helium (which was considered to be wrong, as its abundance was measured  $\sim 10\%$ )
- In low density hot matter you cannot produce heavy nuclei ( $A = 5$  and  $A = 8$ ) in this way. With Hubble constant at that time  $H_0 \sim 500 \text{ km/sec/Mpc}$  the age of the Universe  $\approx$  the age of the **Earth**  $\Rightarrow$  heavy elements could not be produced in stars, should be in the Universe “from the very beginning”.

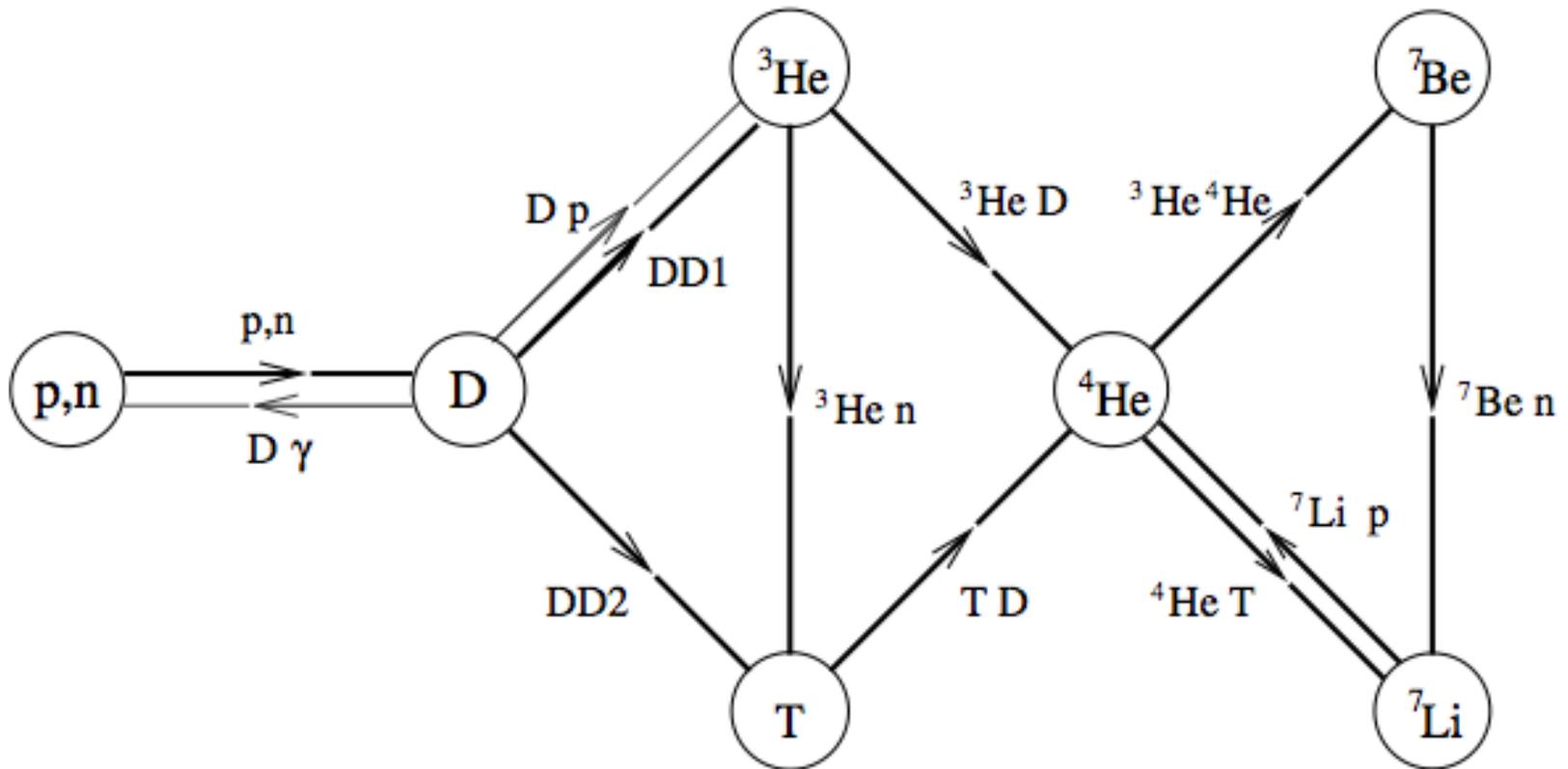
Problems 5c for  $H_0 = 500 \text{ km/sec/Mpc}$

It was concluded by many that “Hot Big Bang” is ruled out

see e.g.  
Zel'dovich  
UFN 1963

# Nuclear network

- To produce chemical elements one needs to pass through “deuterium bottleneck”  $p + n \rightarrow D + \gamma$



## Deuterium bottleneck

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- Deuterium is the first element to be produced. Reaction  $p + n \rightarrow D + \gamma$
- We saw that for each baryon there were  $\sim 10^{10}$  photons.
- Binding energy of deuterium is  $E_D = 2.2 \text{ MeV}$  (or  $T_D = 2.5 \times 10^{10} \text{ K}$ ).
- At  $T = E_D$  85% of all photons have  $E > T_D \Rightarrow$  any deuterium nucleus will be quickly photo-disassociated via  $D + \gamma \rightarrow p + n$
- Production of deuterium becomes efficient when temperature drops so that the number of photons with  $E > E_D$  will be  $\sim 10^{-10}$

$$\frac{n_\gamma(E > E_D)}{n_{\gamma_{tot}}} \sim \eta_B \implies \eta_B \left( \frac{2.5 T_{BBN}}{m_p} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{\frac{E_D}{T_{BBN}}} \sim 1 \quad (2)$$

$$T_{BBN} \approx 70 \text{ keV} \quad \text{and} \quad t_{BBN} = \frac{M_{Pl}^*}{2T_{BBN}^2} \approx 120 \text{ s}$$

# Neutron/proton ratio

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- How many neutrons and protons are there (so far we did not distinguish between them)
- At high temperatures chemical equilibrium between protons and neutrons is maintained by weak interactions  $n + \nu \rightleftharpoons p + e^-$ ,  $n + e^+ \rightleftharpoons p + \bar{\nu}$ ,  $n \rightleftharpoons p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$
- Description of these processes is given by Fermi 4-fermion theory:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{Fermi}} = -\frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}}[\bar{p}(x)\gamma_\mu(1 - \gamma_5)n(x)][\bar{e}(x)\gamma^\mu(1 - \gamma_5)\nu(x)] \quad (3)$$

Fermi coupling constant  $G_F \approx 10^{-5} \text{ GeV}^{-2}$

- **Problem:** demonstrate the dimensionality of the Fermi coupling constant

# The content of MeV plasma

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- If temperatures was at least few MeV, we expect plasma to contain **electron-positron pairs** in equilibrium amounts ( $\gamma + \gamma \rightleftharpoons e^+ + e^-$  for  $T \gtrsim m_e$ )
- We also know that the plasma contained some number of protons and neutrons (their origin will be discussed later)
- Weak reactions were in equilibrium until  $T \sim 1$  MeV

Many weak reactions that produce neutrinos ( $\nu_e$ ) are responsible for keeping  $p$  and  $n$  in thermal equilibrium



- Cross-section (in units  $\text{length}^2$ ) in  $2 \rightarrow 2$  reactions is defined as

$$\sigma \sim \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2E_p)(2\pi)^3} \frac{d^3 k'}{(2E_{k'})(2\pi)^3} |\mathcal{M}|^2 \delta^4\left(\sum_{in} p - \sum_{out} k\right)$$

where  $|\mathcal{M}|^2$  is a **matrix element** – probability of scattering – for a particular choice of incoming and outgoing momenta  $p_{in}$  and  $k_{out}$

- cross-section can depend only on Lorentz invariant quantities
  - masses of particles
  - coupling constants
  - 3 Lorentz-invariant combinations of incoming and outgoing momenta, **Mandelstam variables**:

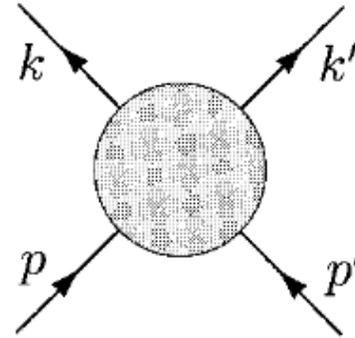
# Cross-section, reaction rates

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$$s = (p + p')^2 = (k + k')^2 = 4E_{cm}^2$$

$$t = (k - p)^2 = (k' - p')^2$$

$$u = (k - p')^2 = (k' - p)^2$$



- If all incoming particles are relativistic,  $E \gg m$ , we expect that total cross-section is a function of center-of-mass energy only
- Example: QED

$$\sigma \sim \frac{\alpha^2}{E_{cm}^2}$$

the real answer e.g. for  $e^+ + e^- \rightarrow \gamma + \gamma$  is given by  $\sigma = \frac{\pi\alpha^2}{2E_{cm}^2}$  up to some  $\log(E/m_e)$  corrections

- Example: Fermi theory. Coupling constant  $G_F$  has dimension

## Cross-section, reaction rates

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$[G_F] = \text{GeV}^{-2}$ , cross-section  $[\sigma] = \text{GeV}^{-2}$ .

$$\sigma \sim G_F^2 E_{cm}^2$$

- To check whether these reactions are in equilibrium, compared scattering rate due to Fermi interaction with the Hubble expansion rate:

$$\Gamma \sim \sigma n_\nu = G_F^2 E_{cm}^2 T^3 \sim G_F^2 T^5$$

(as  $E_{cm} \sim T$  for particles in thermal equilibrium)

- For reactions with neutrons and protons one should also take into account that they are not relativistic and their number density is given by Boltzmann distribution.
- These reactions go out of equilibrium at  $T_\nu \approx 1 \text{ MeV}$

## Cross-section, reaction rates

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- The difference of concentrations of  $n$  and  $p$  at that time is

$$\frac{n_n}{n_p} = \exp\left(-\frac{m_n - m_p}{T_\nu}\right) \approx \frac{1}{6}$$

$$m_n - m_p = 1.2 \text{ MeV}$$

- Almost all neutrons will end up in  ${}^4\text{He}$ . The **mass abundance of Helium** is

$$Y_p \equiv \frac{4n_{He}}{n_n + n_p} = \frac{4(n_n/2)}{n_n + n_p} = \frac{2(n_n/n_p)}{1 + n_n/n_p}$$

- If  $\eta_B \sim 1$ , Helium abundance would be  $\frac{1/3}{1+1/6} \approx 0.28$
- However, as we saw due to  $\eta_B \ll 1$  formation of deuterium (preceeding formation of Helium) does not happen until  $T \sim 70 \text{ keV}$
- Therefore there is a time-delay between freeze-out of weak reaction and time of Helium formation. The unstable neutrons (lifetime

## Cross-section, reaction rates

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$\tau_n \sim 900$  sec decay and therefore by the time of Helium formation  
 $n_n/n_p \approx 1/7$ , which gives  $Y_p \approx 25\%$

- $\Rightarrow$   ${}^4\text{He}$  is the second most abundant element in the Universe (after hydrogen)
- The Helium abundance is known with a precision of a few% (e.g.  $Y_p = 0.2565 \pm 0.0010(\text{stat.}) \pm 0.0050(\text{syst.})$ ) and is indeed very close to 25%

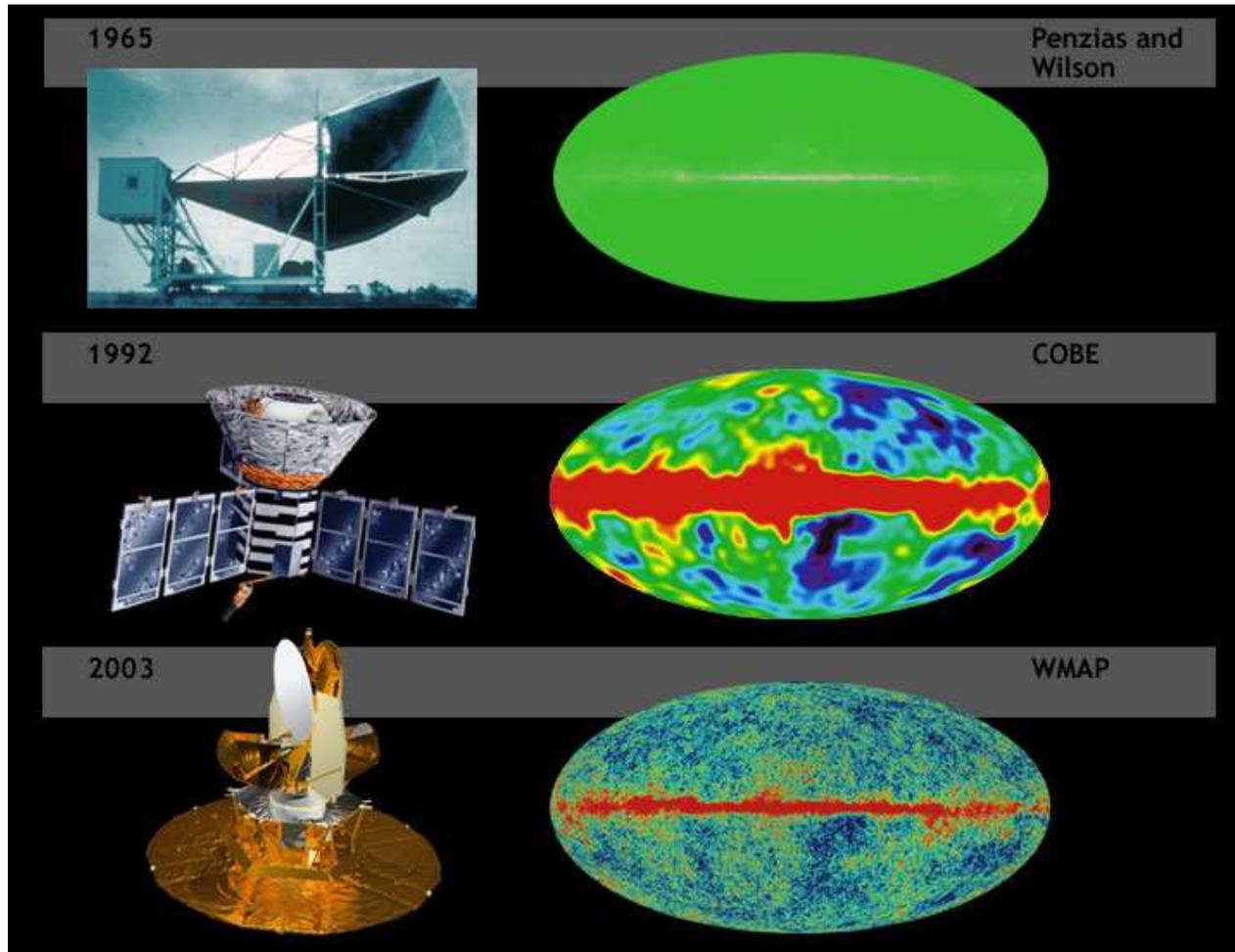
Izotov &  
Thuan (2010)

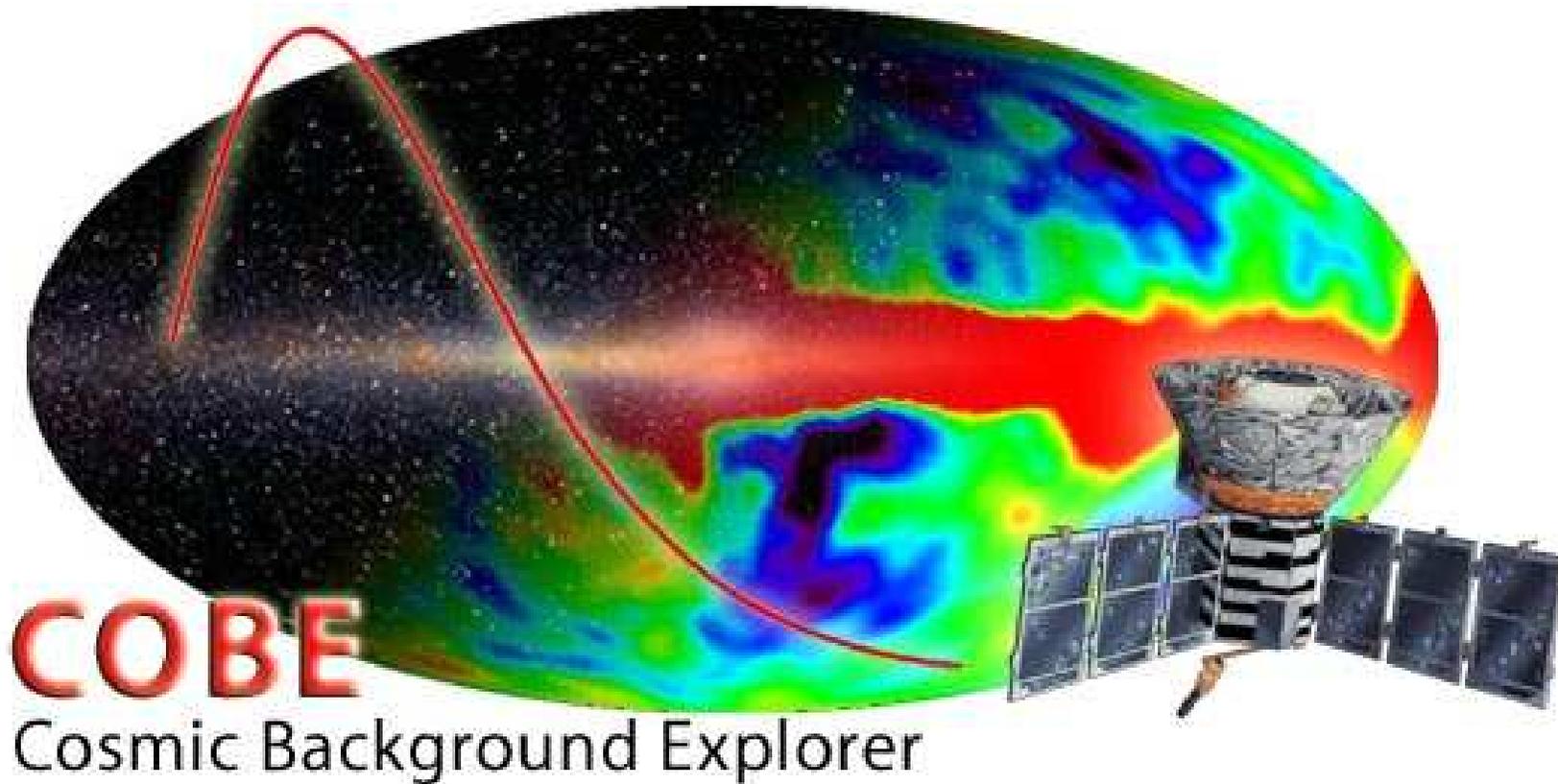
# Cosmic Microwave background

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Accidentally discovered by Arno Penzias and Robert Wilson:

1965



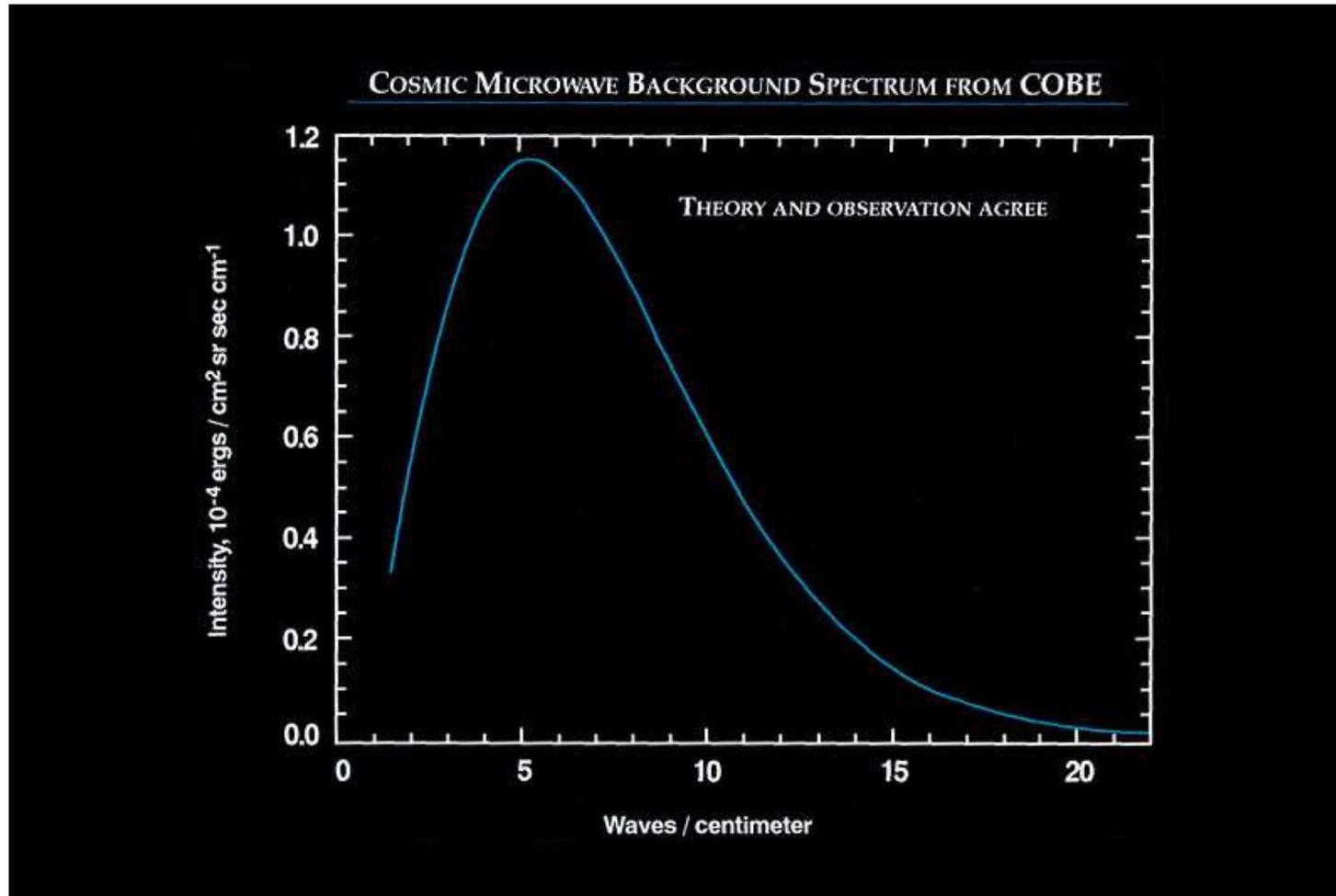


Data from **COBE** (1989 – 1996) showed a perfect fit between the black body curve and that observed in the microwave background.

# CMB spectrum

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Cosmic microwave background radiation is almost perfect **blackbody**



CMB temperature  $T = 2.725 K$

# Properties of CMB

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- Temperature of CMB  $T = 2.725 \text{ K}$
- CMB contribution to the total energy density of the Universe:  
 $\Omega_\gamma \simeq 4.5 \times 10^{-5}$
- Spectrum peaks in the microwave range at a frequency of 160.2 GHz, corresponding to a wavelength of 1.9 mm.
- **410** photons per cubic centimeter
- *Almost* perfect blackbody spectrum ( $\delta T/T < 10^{-4}$ )
- COBE has detected anisotropies at the level  $\delta T/T \sim 10^{-5}$

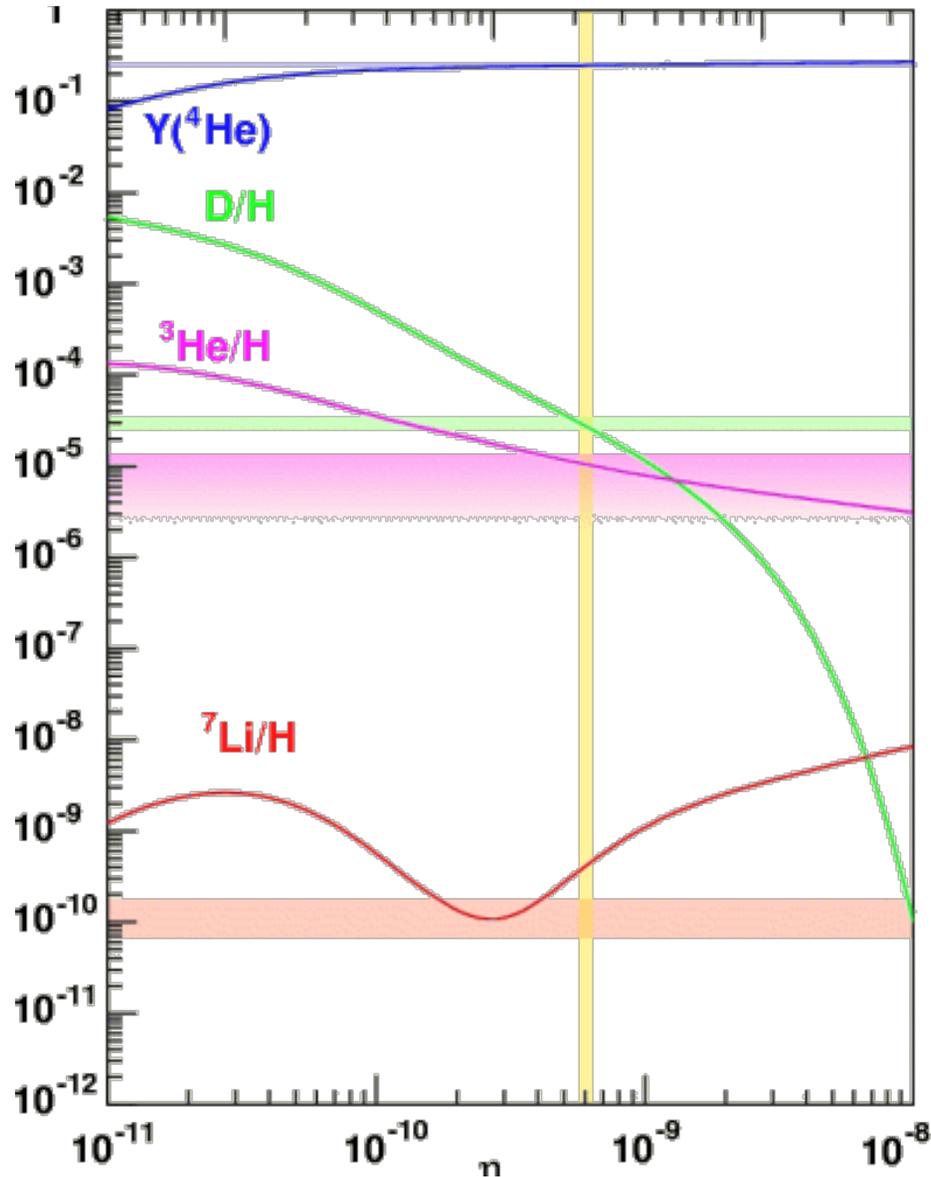
***Go to CMB anisotropies section***

- As temperature of the Universe drops, all protons will recombine with electrons to form neutral hydrogen:  $e + p \rightarrow H + \gamma$ . Binding energy  $E_H = 13.6 \text{ eV}$
- If  $\eta_B \ll 1$  at  $T \sim 13.6 \text{ eV}$  for each hydrogen atom there are many ionizing photons.
- As in the case of BBN and deuterium production, the temperature should drop significantly so that the number of energetic photons is small
- To find the number of “fast” photon, we describe high-energy tail of Bose-Einstein distribution as  $f(k) \approx 1/(2\pi)^3 \exp[-k/T]$  and find the temperature when

$$\frac{n_\gamma(E > E_H)}{n_{\gamma,tot}} \approx \eta_B \quad (4)$$

- This gives the solution  $T_{dec} \sim E_H/23 \approx 0.6 \text{ eV}$
- Again, knowing  $T_{dec}$  and  $T_{cmb}$  today ( $T_{cmb} = 2.725 \text{ K}$ ), one can independently determine the baryon-to-photon ratio and **confirm** the BBN prediction

# BBN predictions confirmed



- Curves – theoretical predictions of Big Bang nucleosynthesis
- Horizontal stripes – values that follow from observations.
- Golden stripe – measured value of  $\eta$  from CMB observations!

Nowadays BBN has become a tool to determine properties (bounds) on light particles/decaying particles/evolution of fundamental constants

- The Helium abundance is known with a precision of a few% (e.g.  $Y_p = 0.2565 \pm 0.0010(\text{stat.}) \pm 0.0050(\text{syst.})$ )

Izotov &  
Thuan (2010)

- Neutron lifetime provides a “cosmic chronometer”, measuring the time between  $T_\nu$  (**temperature of freeze-out of weak reactions**) and  $T_d$  (**temperature of deuteron production**):

$$\left. \frac{n_n}{n_p} \right|_{T_d} = \left. \frac{n_n}{n_p} \right|_{T_\nu} e^{-t/\tau_n}$$

- This time depends on the temperature  $T_d$  **and** number of relativistic species at that time

## Effective number of relativistic d.o.f.

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- Total energy density at radiation dominated epoch (i.e. the Hubble expansion rate/lifetime of the Universe) depends on the **effective number of relativistic degrees of freedom**:

$$\frac{3}{8\pi G_N} H^2 = \rho_{\text{rad}} = \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_* T^4 \quad \text{or}$$

where the number of relativistic degrees of freedom is given by

$$g_* = \sum_{\text{boson species}} g_i + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{\text{fermion species}} g_i$$

where relativistic species (having  $\langle p \rangle \gtrsim m$ ) count

Problems 6b, 6d

The primordial Helium abundance may change if

- There are more than 3 neutrino species (Roughly: one extra neutrino or a particle with similar energy density is allowed at about  $2\sigma$  level)
- There was any other particle with the mass  $\ll$  MeV and lifetime of the order of seconds or more that was contributing to  $g_*$  at BBN epoch (1 second – lifetime of the Universe at  $T \sim 1$  MeV)
- There were heavy particles with lifetime in the range 0.01 – few seconds (that were decaying around BBN epoch)
- Newton's constant (entering Friedmann equation) changed between BBN epoch and later times (e.g. CMB or today)

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# NEUTRINO IN THE EARLY UNIVERSE

# Neutrino properties

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- there are 3 neutrinos (for each generation):  $\nu_e, \nu_\mu, \nu_\tau$
- neutrinos are stable
- neutrinos are electrically neutral
- neutrinos have tiny masses (much smaller than mass of the electron)
- neutrinos participate in weak interactions

How neutrinos are produced in the early Universe?

## Neutrino reaction rates?

- Recall: weak interaction strength is **Fermi coupling constant**  
 $G_F \approx 10^{-5} \text{ GeV}^{-2}$

- In the processes like  $e^+ + e^- \rightarrow \nu_\alpha + \bar{\nu}_\alpha$  the interaction rate

$$\Gamma_{ee \rightarrow \nu\bar{\nu}} = n_e(T) \times \sigma_{\text{Weak}}$$

where

$$\sigma_{\text{Weak}} \propto G_F^2 \times E_e^2$$

What is the typical energy of electrons in this reaction?

- 
- If in the expanding Universe particles that are in thermal equilibrium have either Fermi-Dirac or Bose-Einstein distributions
  - At temperatures  $T \gg m$  electron distribution function is

$$f_e(p) = 4 \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{e^{p/T} + 1}$$

- Number density of the electrons

$$n_e(T) = 4 \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{e^{p/T} + 1} \propto T^3$$

- Average energy of the electron  $E_e = c \times \langle p \rangle$  i.e

$$E_e = \frac{4}{n_e(T)} \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{p}{e^{p/T} + 1} \sim T$$

- 
- As a result  $E_e \sim T$
  - Reaction rate  $\Gamma_{ee \rightarrow \nu\bar{\nu}} \sim G_F^2 T^5$
  - Compare the characteristic interaction time  $\Gamma_{ee \rightarrow \nu\bar{\nu}}^{-1}$  with the age of the Universe  $t_{\text{Univ}} = 1/H(T)$ . To establish equilibrium we need  $\Gamma_{ee \rightarrow \nu\bar{\nu}}^{-1} \ll t_{\text{Univ}}$  or  $\Gamma_{ee \rightarrow \nu\bar{\nu}} \gg H(T)$

At what temperatures neutrinos are in equilibrium?

- One can see that temperature when

$$\Gamma \sim G_F^2 T^5 = T^2 \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G_N}{3} g_*(T)}$$

is roughly  $T_{\text{dec}} \sim 1 \text{ MeV}$

## $g_*$ in Standard Model

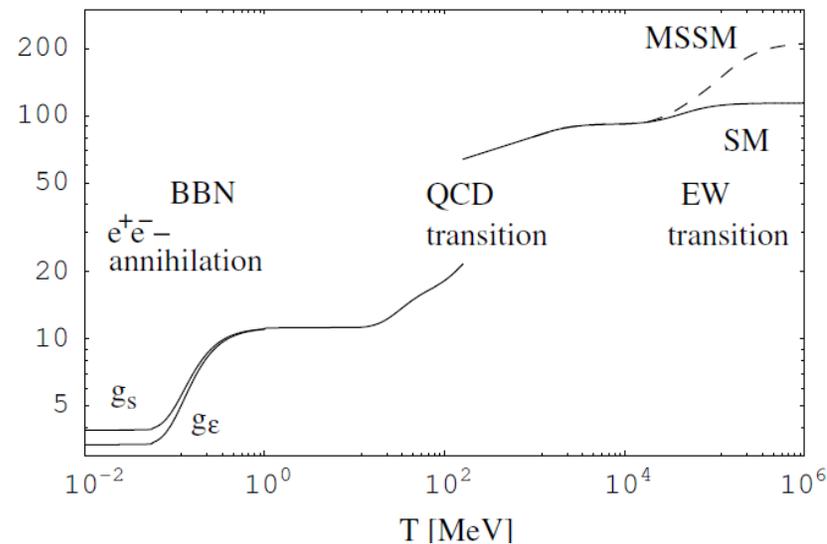
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The Friedmanns equation for RD epoch can be written as:

$$H^2(T) = \frac{8\pi G_N}{3} \underbrace{g_*(T) \frac{\pi^2}{30} T^4}_{\rho_{\text{rad}}}$$

where  $g_*$  – effective number of relativistic degrees of freedom.

As a result,  $2 \lesssim g_* \lesssim 110$  for Standard Model:



We saw that

- Neutrinos are produced in the early Universe and are in thermal equilibrium in plasma at  $T \gtrsim T_{\text{dec}} \sim 1 \text{ MeV}$
- As all equilibrium ultra-relativistic particles their average energy is  $\langle E_\nu \rangle \sim T$ , their number density is  $\sim T^3$
- Their interaction rate with other particles  $\Gamma_\nu \sim G_F^2 T^5$

**What happens below  $T_{\text{dec}}$ ?**

# Freeze-out

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- If  $\Gamma \lesssim H$  particles go out of thermal equilibrium – **freeze-out**.
- After the freeze-out, the comoving number density is conserved (particles are no longer produced or destroyed):

$$n_{\text{co}}(T > T_{\text{dec}}) = n_{\text{co}}(T_{\text{dec}}) \propto T_{\text{dec}}^3$$

- The average momentum of decoupled particles changes with time (redshifts). Average momentum at the time of decoupling was  $\sim 1$  MeV. Average momentum today is  $\sim 10^{-3}$  eV
- As a result **today** in the Universe there are lots (about  $100 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) neutrinos (**exercise**: reproduce this number)
- Their **energy density** today:

$$\rho_\nu = \sum m_\nu \times n \quad \text{or numerically} \quad \Omega_\nu h^2 \approx \frac{\sum m_\nu}{94 \text{ eV}}$$