# Lesson 2:

# Thermal History of our universe



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Event	Time	Redshift	Temperature
Baryogenesis	?	?	?
EW phase transition	$2 \times 10^{-11} s$	$10^{15}$	100 GeV
QCD phase transition	$2 \times 10^{-5} s$	$10^{12}$	150 MeV
Neutrino decoupling	1s	$6 \times 10^9$	1 MeV
Electron-positron annihilation	6s	$2 \times 10^9$	500 keV
Big bang nucleosynthesis	3min	$4 \times 10^8$	100 keV
Matter-radiation equality	$6 \times 10^4 yrs$	3400	.75 eV
Recombination	$2.6-3.8\times 10^5 yrs$	1100-1400	.2633 eV
CMB	$3.8 \times 10^5 yrs$	1100	.26 eV

#### 2.1 Particle distribution functions

• The usual way of describing particles in thermal equilibrium is via their distribution function, indicating the number of particles in the phase space with a given position x and a momentum p. At 0th order, we have the Bose Einstein or the Fermi-Dirac distributions:

• 
$$f_{BE} = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)/T} - 1}$$
  $f_{FD} = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)/T} + 1}$ 

• The number and energy densities and the pressure read as:

$$n = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int f(\vec{x}, \vec{p}) d^3x d^3p \begin{cases} \text{• Warning! you will have to} \\ \text{work with this expression in} \\ \text{the "Hands in Cosmology"} \\ \text{session} \end{cases}$$

$$\rho = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int E(\vec{p}) f(\vec{x}, \vec{p}) d^3x d^3p$$

$$p = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{p^2}{3E(p)} f(\vec{x}, \vec{p}) d^3x d^3p$$

• While the entropy density is

$$s \equiv \frac{\rho + p}{T}$$

• Throughout the universe's history, particles remain in thermal equilibrium until their interaction rate is equal or larger than the expansion rate of the universe. Then, the particle will decouple from the thermal bath. Of course this is an approximation:

$$\Gamma \lesssim H$$

• The accurate calculation requires to solve the Boltzmann equation:

Lf = Cf

•where f is the distribution function, L is the Liouville operator, and C contains all the collision terms.

• In classical mechanics:  $\hat{L} = \frac{d}{dt} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_x + \vec{F}/m \cdot \vec{\nabla}_v$ • The relativistic version is:  $\hat{L} = p^{\alpha} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\alpha}} - \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\beta\gamma} p^{\beta} p^{\gamma} \frac{\partial}{\partial p^{\alpha}} \qquad P^{\alpha} = (E, \vec{P}) \quad P^{\alpha} = \frac{dx^{\alpha}}{d\lambda}$ • FRW geometry:  $\hat{L}f = E \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} - Hp^2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial E} \qquad \frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int Cf \frac{d^3p}{E}$ 

• The non-relativistic Boltzmann equation: the Liouville operator is just the total time derivative

$$\frac{f(\mathbf{x} + \frac{\mathbf{p}}{m}dt, \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{F}dt, t + dt) - f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t)}{dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t) + \frac{p^i}{m}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t) + F^i\frac{\partial}{\partial p^i}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t)$$

$$L_{NR} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{dx^i}{dt}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} + \frac{dp^i}{dt}\frac{\partial}{\partial p^i} = \frac{d}{dt}$$

$$\hat{L} = \frac{d}{dt} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_x + \vec{F}/m \cdot \vec{\nabla}_v$$

• The relativistic version is:

$$\hat{L} = p^{\alpha} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\alpha}} - \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\beta\gamma} p^{\beta} p^{\gamma} \frac{\partial}{\partial p^{\alpha}} \qquad P^{\alpha} = (E, \vec{P}) \quad P^{\alpha} = \frac{dx^{\alpha}}{d\lambda}$$

• FLRW geometry, the only non-vanishing component is a = 0:

$$\hat{L}f = E\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} - Hp^2\frac{\partial f}{\partial E}$$

• We can also write the Boltzmann equation in terms of the number density:

$$n_A = 4\pi \int dp p^2 f_A(E,t)$$

• Dividing by the energy and integrating over the momentum:

$$4\pi \int dp p^2 \frac{\hat{L}[f_A]}{E} = \frac{dn_A}{dt} - H4\pi \int dp \frac{p^4}{E} \frac{\partial f_A}{\partial E} = \frac{dn_A}{dt} + H4\pi \int dp \frac{\partial (p^3)}{\partial p} f_A$$

$$\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int Cf \frac{d^3p}{E}$$

• Simplifying the possible processes  $(1+2 \leftrightarrow 3+4)$ :

In an expanding universe, the number of particles gets diluted!

 $\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = \int \frac{d^3p_1}{(2\pi)^3 2E_1} \int \frac{d^3p_2}{(2\pi)^3 2E_2} \int \frac{d^3p_3}{(2\pi)^3 2E_3} \int \frac{d^3p_4}{(2\pi)^3 2E_4}$ Particle Physics

$$\times (2\pi)^4 \delta^3 (p^1 + p^2 - p^3 - p^4) \delta (E^1 + E^2 - E^3 - E^4) |\mathcal{M}|^2$$
 Energy-momentum tensor conservation

 $\times (f_3f_4 - f_1f_2)$  Loss rate of 1 is proportional to the occupation numbers of 1 and 2

Production rate of 1 is proportional to the occupation numbers of 3 and 4

• At temperatures smaller than  $E-\mu$  :  $f(E) 
ightarrow e^{\mu/T} e^{-E/T}$ 

• Therefore :

$$f_3 f_4 - f_1 f_2 \to e^{-(E_1 + E_2)/T} \left( e^{(\mu_3 + \mu_4)/T} - e^{(\mu_1 + \mu_2)/T} \right)$$

 Using the following definitions for the number density and the equilibrium number density of species as:

$$n_i = g_i e^{\mu_i/T} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-E_i/T} \qquad n_i^{(0)} \equiv g_i \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-E_i/T}$$

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Using these two expressions:

$$f_3 f_4 - f_1 f_2 \to e^{-(E_1 + E_2)/T} \left( \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^{(0)} n_4^{(0)}} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^{(0)} n_2^{(0)}} \right)$$

• Defining the thermally averaged cross-section as:

$$\langle \sigma v \rangle \equiv e^{-(E_1 + E_2)/T} \left( \frac{1}{n_1^{(0)} n_2^{(0)}} \right) \int \frac{d^3 p_1}{(2\pi)^3 2E_1} \int \frac{d^3 p_2}{(2\pi)^3 2E_2} \int \frac{d^3 p_3}{(2\pi)^3 2E_3} \int \frac{d^3 p_4}{(2\pi)^3 2E_4} \\ \times (2\pi)^4 \delta^3 (p^1 + p^2 - p^3 - p^4) \delta(E^1 + E^2 - E^3 - E^4) |\mathcal{M}|^2$$

• After defining the thermally-averaged cross section, as we have seen:

$$\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = n_1^0 n_2^0 \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^0 n_4^0} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^0 n_2^0} \right)$$

$$g_i (m_i T/2\pi)^{3/2} e^{-m_i/T} \quad m_i \gg T$$

•where the equilibrium density: 
$$n_i^0 \equiv g_i \int rac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-E_i/T}$$

$$g_i \frac{T^3}{\pi^2} \quad m_i \ll T$$

$$\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = n_1^0 n_2^0 \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^0 n_4^0} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^0 n_2^0} \right)$$

- Neutron-Proton ratio
- Recombination
- Dark matter production

• When looking into the DM annihilating case, XX  $\leftrightarrow$  II, 3 and 4 will not couple anymore and therefore:

$$n_3 n_4 = n_3^0 n_4^0$$

$$\frac{dn_X}{dt} + 3Hn_X = \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( (n_X^0)^2 - n_X^2 \right)$$

$$Y \equiv \frac{n_X}{T^3} \qquad \qquad \frac{dY}{dt} = T^3 \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( Y_{EQ}^2 - Y^2 \right)$$

# 2.3 Particle decoupling in the early universe: Neutrinos

See Sergio Pastor's lectures

• We have seen that a very easy and straightforward hand-waving rule to compute a particle decoupling time in the early universe is:

 $\Gamma \lesssim H$ 

• Neutrinos only interact via weak interactions, with a rate:

$$\Gamma_{\nu} = n\sigma v \simeq T^3 G_F^2 T^2 \sim G_F^2 T^5$$

• While the expansion rate of the universe is given by the Hubble factor:

$$H^{2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho \sim T^{4}/m_{pl}^{2}$$
$$\Gamma_{\nu}/H \sim \left(\frac{T}{1 \text{ MeV}}\right)^{3}$$

• Therefore neutrinos decouple from the thermal bath around 1 MeV.

# 2.3 Particle decoupling in the early universe: Neutrinos

See Sergio Pastor's lectures

• The entropy density is:  $s\equiv rac{
ho+p}{T}$ 

¿How are related the photon and the neutrino temperatures?

• Electron positron annihilation takes place AFTER neutrino decoupling.

• In an expanding universe the entropy density pero comoving volume is conserved:

• Boson's entropy contribution:  $2\pi^2 T^3/45$ • Fermion's entropy contribution:  $7/8 \times 2\pi^2 T^3/45$ 

• Before electron/positron annihilation= electrons (g=2), positrons (g=2), neutrinos (3), antineutrinos (3) and photons (g=2) therefore:  $s(a_1) = 2\pi^2 T_1^3 / 45(2 + 7/8(2 + 2 + 3 + 3))$ 

• After, only neutrinos, antineutrinos and photons but at different temperature!  $s(a_2) = 2\pi^2/45(2T_{\gamma}^3 + 7/8(3+3)T_{\nu}^3)$   $s(a_1)a_1^3 = s(a_2)a_2^3 \qquad a_1T_1 = a_2T_{\nu} \qquad (\frac{T_{\nu}}{T_{\nu}}) = \left(\frac{4}{11}\right)^{1/3}$ 

# 2.4 Big Bang Nucleosynthesis (BBN)

Nuclear binding energies are of a few MeV, that's why BBN occurs when the temperature of the universe is around 1 MeV, being the universe made of:

- Relativistic particles in equilibrium: photons, electrons and positrons (e<sup>+</sup>e<sup>-</sup>↔ γγ)
   Decoupled relativistic particles: neutrinos
- Non-relativistic particles (baryons):

$$\eta_b \equiv \frac{n_b}{n_\gamma} = 5.5 \times 10^{-10} \left(\frac{\Omega_b h^2}{0.020}\right)$$

• There are way less baryons than photons!

• Neutrons and protons interact via weak interactions:

 $p + \bar{\nu} \leftrightarrow n + e^+$   $p + e^- \leftrightarrow n + \nu$   $n \leftrightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}$ 

• Light elements are formed via nuclear interactions:

 $p + n \rightarrow D + \gamma$   $D + D \rightarrow n + {}^{3}He$   ${}^{3}He + D \rightarrow p + {}^{4}He$ 

• Calculations will be way simpler because we will assume that:

• We neglect elements heavier than Helium/Lithium.

• At temperatures above 0.1 MeV only free protons and neutrons exist (at higher temperatures, any time a nucleus is formed, it is destroyed by a high-energy photon)

2.4 Big Bang Nucleosynthesis (BBN)  $p+n \rightarrow D+\gamma$ 

• In equilibrium:

$$\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = n_1^0 n_2^0 \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^0 n_4^0} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^0 n_2^0} \right) \xrightarrow{n_\gamma = n_\gamma^0} \frac{n_D}{n_n n_p} = \frac{n_D^0}{n_n^0 n_p^0}$$

• We have seen that:

$$n_i^0 \equiv g_i \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-E_i/T} \quad g_i (m_i T/2\pi)^{3/2} e^{-m_i/T} \quad m_i \gg T$$

#### Therefore

 $\longrightarrow \quad \frac{n_D}{n_n n_p} = \frac{3}{4} \left( \frac{2\pi m_D}{m_n m_p T} \right)^{3/2} e^{(m_n + m_p - m_D)/T}$ 

• The factor 3/4 refers to the spin states (g). Simplifying a bit more:

$$n_n, n_p \propto n_b \longrightarrow \left(\frac{n_D}{n_b} \sim \eta_b \left(\frac{T}{m_p}\right)^{3/2} e^{(B_D)/T}$$

where  $B_D=2.2$  MeV. If the condition T<< $B_D$  does not apply, all baryons are protons and neutrons: no light elements! This is what happens at T> 0.1 MeV. For T < 0.1 MeV, deuterium and helium are produced, but not heavier elements, as there are not heavy stable isotopes with mass number A=5 to be produced as:  ${}^4He + p \rightarrow X$ In stars, the process:

$${}^{4}He + {}^{4}He + {}^{4}He \rightarrow {}^{12}C$$

takes place but in the early universe densities are far too low to allow for such a process!

2.4 Big Bang Nucleosynthesis (BBN)

$$\frac{n_D}{n_b} \sim \eta_b \left(\frac{T}{m_p}\right)^{3/2} e^{(B_D)/T}$$

The deuterium equilibrium abundance is of order of the baryon abundance if:

$$\ln(\eta_b) + 3/2\ln(T/m_p) \simeq -B_D/T$$

suggesting that deuterium production starts at T= 0.07 MeV or so.

Helium is favoured over Deuterium, as its binding energy is larger! Almost all remaining neutrons at 0.07 MeV ended up into Helium. Since two neutrons go into Helium, the final Helium abundance is half the neutron abundance at that temperature, with a final abundance of 0.24 or so.

Not all Deuterium is processed into Helium, though!

2.4 BBN



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# 2.5 Recombination

• At temperatures above 1 eV, electrons and photons interact via Compton, while electrons and protons via Coulomb scattering

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

• Some hydrogen atoms are formed, however photons are much more numerous than baryons and they are ionised very fast!

$$\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = n_1^0 n_2^0 \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^0 n_4^0} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^0 n_2^0} \right) \qquad X_e \equiv \frac{n_p}{n_p + n_H} = \frac{n_e}{n_e + n_H} \quad \text{Universe's neutrality}$$

$$\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = n_b \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( (1 - X_e) (m_e T / 2\pi)^{3/2} e^{-(m_e + m_p - m_H)/T} - X_e^2 n_b \right)$$

$$n_e = n_b X_e$$

$$\frac{dX_e}{dt} = \left( (1 - X_e) \beta - X_e^2 n_b \alpha^{(2)} \right)$$

 $\beta \equiv \langle \sigma v \rangle (m_e T/2\pi)^{3/2} e^{-\epsilon_0/T}$  Ionisation

 $\alpha^{(2)} \equiv \langle \sigma v \rangle$  Recombination rate to n=2 (n=1 is irrelevant as it leads to the production of a photon that will immediately ionise a neutral atom!)

$$\alpha^{(2)} = 9.78\alpha^2 / m_e^2 (\epsilon_0 / T)^{1/2} \ln(\epsilon_0 / T)$$

#### 2.5 Recombination

Saha equation fails to describe the recombination process once that equilibrium becomes difficult to maintain:  $e^- + p \leftrightarrow H + \gamma$ 



# 2.5 Photon decoupling

• Photons decoupled from electrons when the Compton interaction rate is below the universe's expanding rate:

$$n_e \sigma_T = X_e n_b \sigma_T \underbrace{=}_{\text{Thomson cross section=}}_{\text{0.665 10-24 cm}^2}$$

$$X_e \sigma_T \Omega_b h^2 a^{-3} \rho_{crit} m_p = H \underbrace{}_{H^2(a) = H_0^2 (\Omega_m(a) + \Omega_r(a) + \Omega_{de}(a))}$$

$$\frac{n_e \sigma_T}{H} = 113 X_e (\Omega_b h^2 / 0.02) (0.15 / \Omega_m h^2)^{1/2} \left(\frac{1+z}{1000}\right)^{3/2} \left(1 + \frac{1+z_{eq}}{3600} \frac{0.15}{\Omega_m h^2}\right)^{-1/2}$$

The redshift at which decoupling takes place is z=1000, and therefore it happens during the recombination epoch!

#### 2.6 Particle decoupling in the early universe:

See Sergio Palomares' lectures Dark Matter decoupling and freeze-out



$$\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = n_1^0 n_2^0 \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^0 n_4^0} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^0 n_2^0} \right) \qquad \begin{array}{l} n_3 = n_3^{(0)} \\ n_4 = n_4^{(0)} \end{array}$$

$$\frac{dn_X}{dt} + 3Hn_X = \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( (n_X^0)^2 - n_X^2 \right)$$

$$Y \equiv \frac{n_X}{T^3} \qquad \qquad \frac{dY}{dt} = T^3 \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( Y_{EQ}^2 - Y^2 \right)$$

## 2.6 Particle decoupling in the early universe: Dark Matter decoupling and freeze-out

See Sergio Palomares' lectures

$$\frac{dY}{dt} = T^3 \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( Y_{EQ}^2 - Y^2 \right) \quad \underbrace{\longleftrightarrow}_{x \equiv m/T} \quad \frac{dY}{dx} = \frac{\lambda}{x^2} \left( Y^2 - Y_{EQ}^2 \right)$$
$$\lambda \equiv \frac{m^3 \langle \sigma v \rangle}{H(m)}$$

- This equation is a Riccatti-like one (with no analytical solutions)
- For very high temperatures, x < 1, reactions happen really FAST!  $y = y_{EQ}$ .

#### 2.6 Particle decoupling in the early universe:

See Sergio Palomares' lectures

Dark Matter decoupling and freeze-out

$$\frac{dY}{dx} = \frac{\lambda}{x^2} \left( Y^2 - Y_{EQ}^2 \right) \qquad x \equiv m/T \qquad \qquad \lambda \equiv \frac{m^3 \langle \sigma v \rangle}{H(m)}$$

• For x>>1,  $Y_{EQ}$  is exponentially suppressed, and the dark matter number density is so low that the interaction is no longer effective: FREEZE OUT

$$\frac{dY}{dx} \simeq \frac{\lambda Y^2}{x^2} \qquad \qquad \frac{1}{Y_{\infty}} - \frac{1}{Y_f} = \frac{\lambda}{x_f}$$



# Backup slides

$\rightarrow$	$^{2}\mathrm{H}$ + $\gamma$
$\rightarrow$	$^{3}\mathrm{He} + \gamma$
$\rightarrow$	${}^{3}\mathrm{H} + \mathrm{p}$
$\rightarrow$	$^{3}\text{He} + \text{n}$
$\rightarrow$	$^{3}\mathrm{H}$ + p
$\rightarrow$	$^{4}\mathrm{He} + \gamma$
$\rightarrow$	$^{4}\text{He} + \text{n}$
$\rightarrow$	$^{4}\text{He} + \text{p}$
$\rightarrow$	$^{7}\mathrm{Be} + \gamma$
$\rightarrow$	$^{7}\mathrm{Li} + \gamma$
$\rightarrow$	$^{7}\mathrm{Li} + \mathrm{p}$
$\rightarrow$	$^{4}\text{He} + ^{4}\text{He}$
	$ \begin{array}{c} \rightarrow \\ \rightarrow $

Event	Time	Redshift	Temperature
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# **2.4 Big Bang Nucleosynthesis (BBN)** $\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = n_1^0 n_2^0 \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^0 n_4^0} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^0 n_2^0} \right)$ • Neutron-to-proton ratio $p + e^- \rightarrow n + \nu_e$

• In equilibrium, the neutron-to-proton ratio in the non-relativistic limit reads as:

$$\frac{n_p^{(0)}}{n_n^{(0)}} = e^{Q/T}$$
  $Q \equiv m_n - m_p = 1.293 \text{ MeV}$ 

• At high temperatures, there are as many protons as neutrons. As temperature decreases, the neutron fraction goes down.

