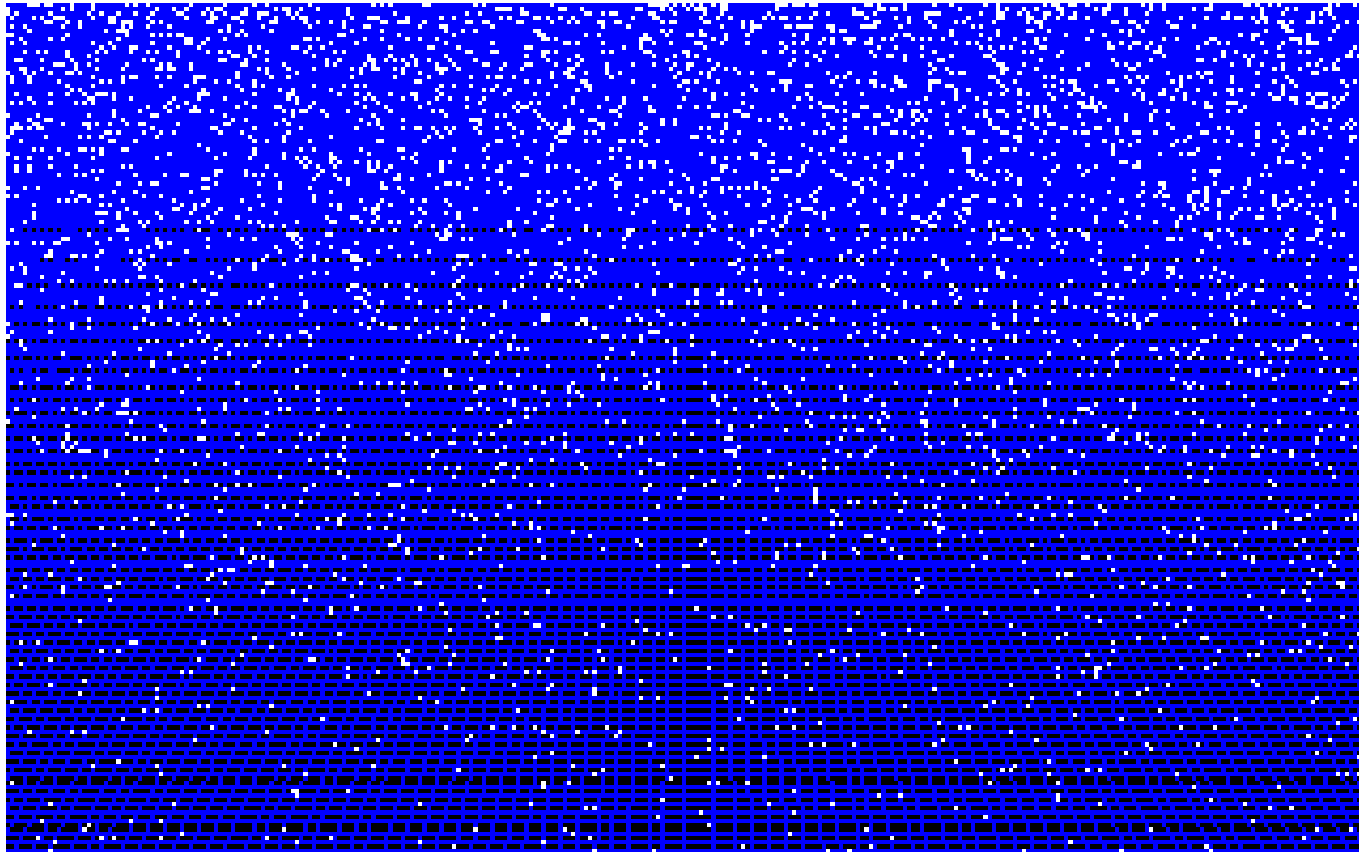




Standard Cosmological Model: I

- ❑ Friedmann-Robertson-Walker (FRW) Metric /
Friedmann Equation
- ❑ Constituents of the Universe
- ❑ Thermal History: Neutrino Abundance
- ❑ Thermal History: Weakly Interacting Massive Particles
(WIMPs)

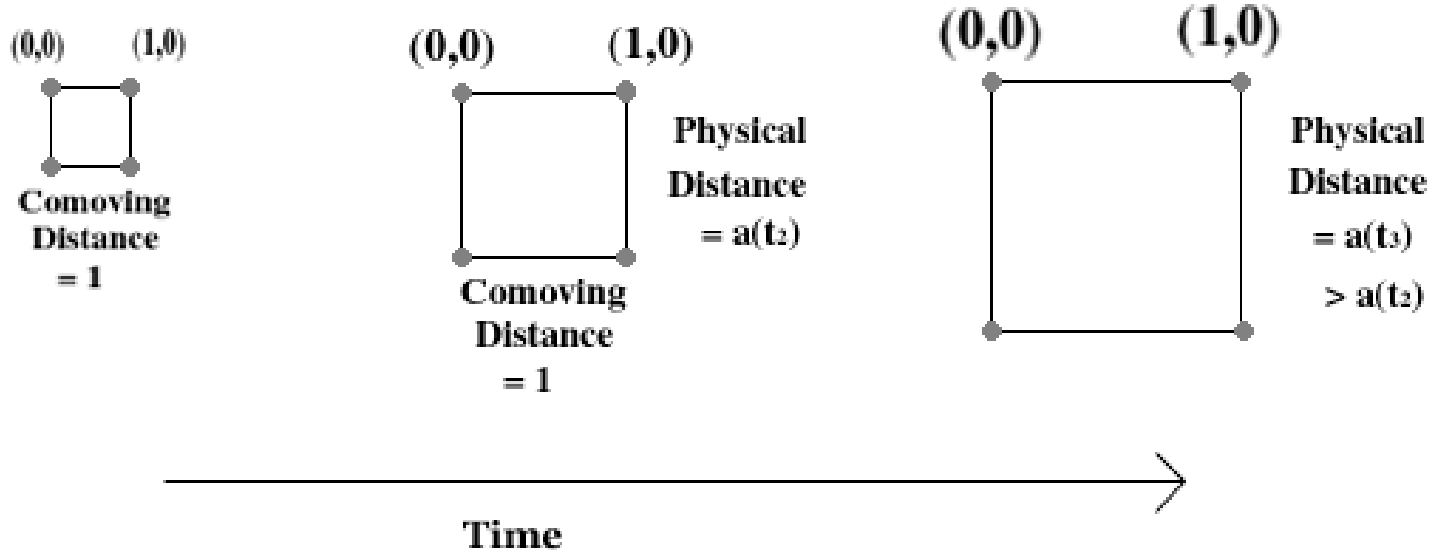
The Universe is Expanding



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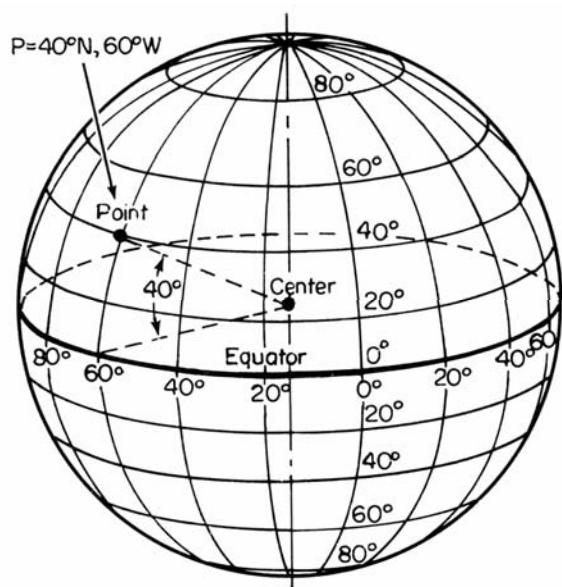
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Scale Factor a quantifies expansion



Comoving Coordinates/Distances

The coordinate differences on the grid are called *comoving distances*. They are the equivalent of longitude & latitude.



To get a physical distance dl from a set of coordinate differences $(d\theta, d\varphi)$, use the *metric*.

$$dl^2 = R^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2)$$

$$g_{\theta\theta} = R^2 \quad ; \quad g_{\phi\phi} = R^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

The scale factor $a(t)$ is the key function in the Friedmann-Robertson-Walker metric

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - a(t)^2 \left(\frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 \right)$$

In a flat universe (our universe) $k=0$, and the metric reduces to

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(t) dx^i dx^i$$

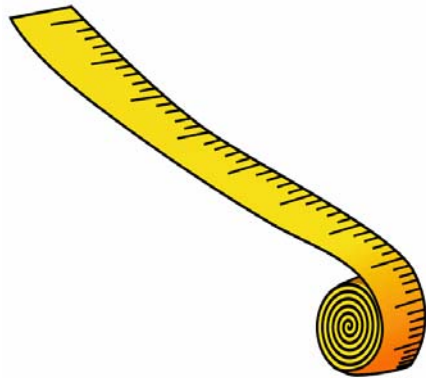
or

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

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

Comoving Coordinates/Distances

Since we set $a_0=1$, the comoving distance between 2 objects is the physical distance one would get today if an infinitely long tape measure was placed between the objects.



A tape measure placed between the same 2 objects early on would find a physical distance of $(a(t) \times \text{comoving distance})$

The evolution of a is determined by Einstein's Equations

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

Ricci Tensor

Ricci Scalar

Newton's Constant

Energy Momentum Tensor

The diagram shows the Einstein field equations with four labels in purple text and arrows pointing to specific terms in the equation. The label 'Ricci Tensor' points to the $R_{\mu\nu}$ term. The label 'Ricci Scalar' points to the R term in the $\frac{1}{2} R g_{\mu\nu}$ term. The label 'Newton's Constant' points to the G term in the $8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$ term. The label 'Energy Momentum Tensor' points to the $T_{\mu\nu}$ term.

General Relativity in 1 Slide

Metric inverse

$$g^{\mu\alpha} g_{\alpha\nu} = \delta^{\mu}_{\nu}$$

Raise/lower indices with metric/inverse

$$T^{\alpha}_{\beta} = g^{\alpha\mu} T_{\mu\beta}$$

Christoffel Symbol

$$\Gamma^{\alpha}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} \left[\frac{\partial g_{\beta\mu}}{\partial x^{\nu}} + \frac{\partial g_{\beta\nu}}{\partial x^{\mu}} - \frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^{\beta}} \right]$$

Ricci Tensor

$$R_{\mu\nu} = \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\mu\nu,\alpha} - \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\mu\alpha,\nu} + \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\beta\alpha} \Gamma^{\beta}_{\mu\nu} - \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\beta\nu} \Gamma^{\beta}_{\mu\alpha}$$

Ricci Scalar

$$R = g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu}$$

Example: Christoffel Symbol

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma^0_{ij} &= \frac{1}{2} g^{0\alpha} \left[g_{\alpha i, j} + g_{\alpha j, i} - g_{ij, \alpha} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} g^{00} \left[g_{0i, j} + g_{0j, i} - g_{ij, 0} \right]\end{aligned}$$

But the metric has no spatial dependence, so ...

And $g^{00} = -1$ and $g_{ij} = \delta_{ij} a^2$, so

$$\Gamma^0_{ij} = \delta_{ij} \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} a^2 = \delta_{ij} \dot{a} a$$

Time-Time Component of Einstein Equations

$$R_{00} + \frac{1}{2}R = 8\pi GT_{00} = 8\pi G\rho$$

Straightforward calculations lead to:

$$R_{00} = -3\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} \qquad R = 6\left[\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2\right]$$

Plug in to get the
Friedmann equation:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 \equiv H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho$$

Space-Space Component of Einstein Equations

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = -4\pi G P$$

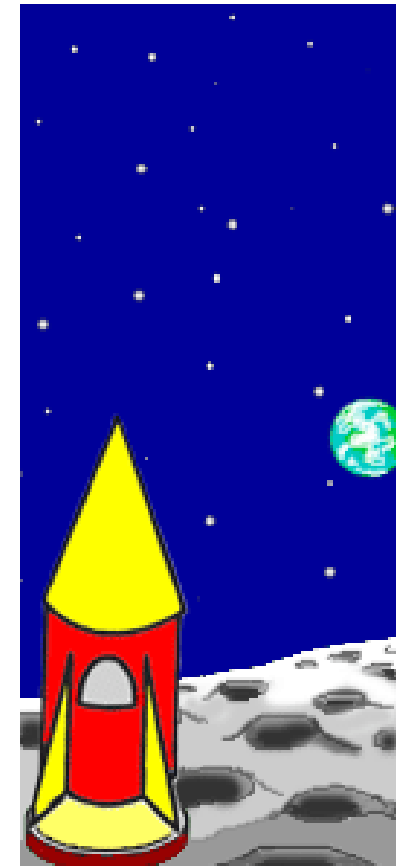
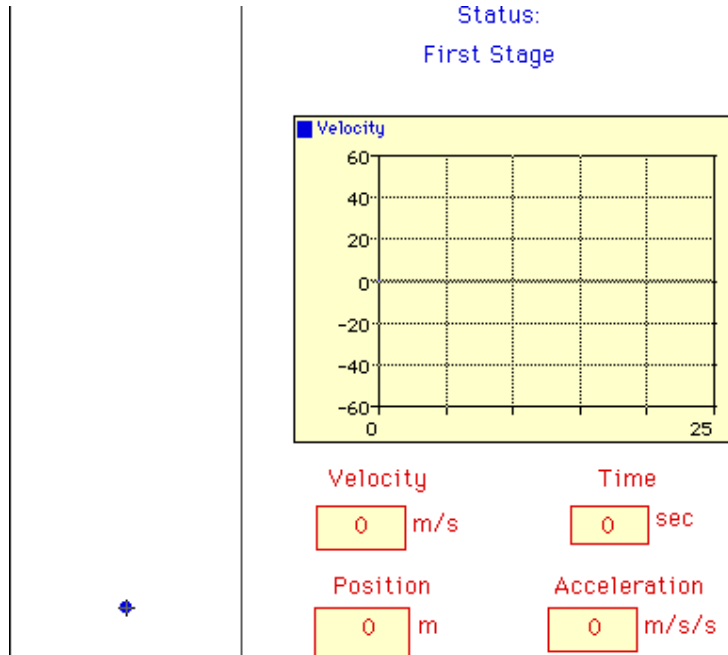
where P is the diagonal space-space component of the energy momentum tensor.

Combine with the Friedmann equation to get:

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

Deceleration unless
 $\rho + 3P$ is negative

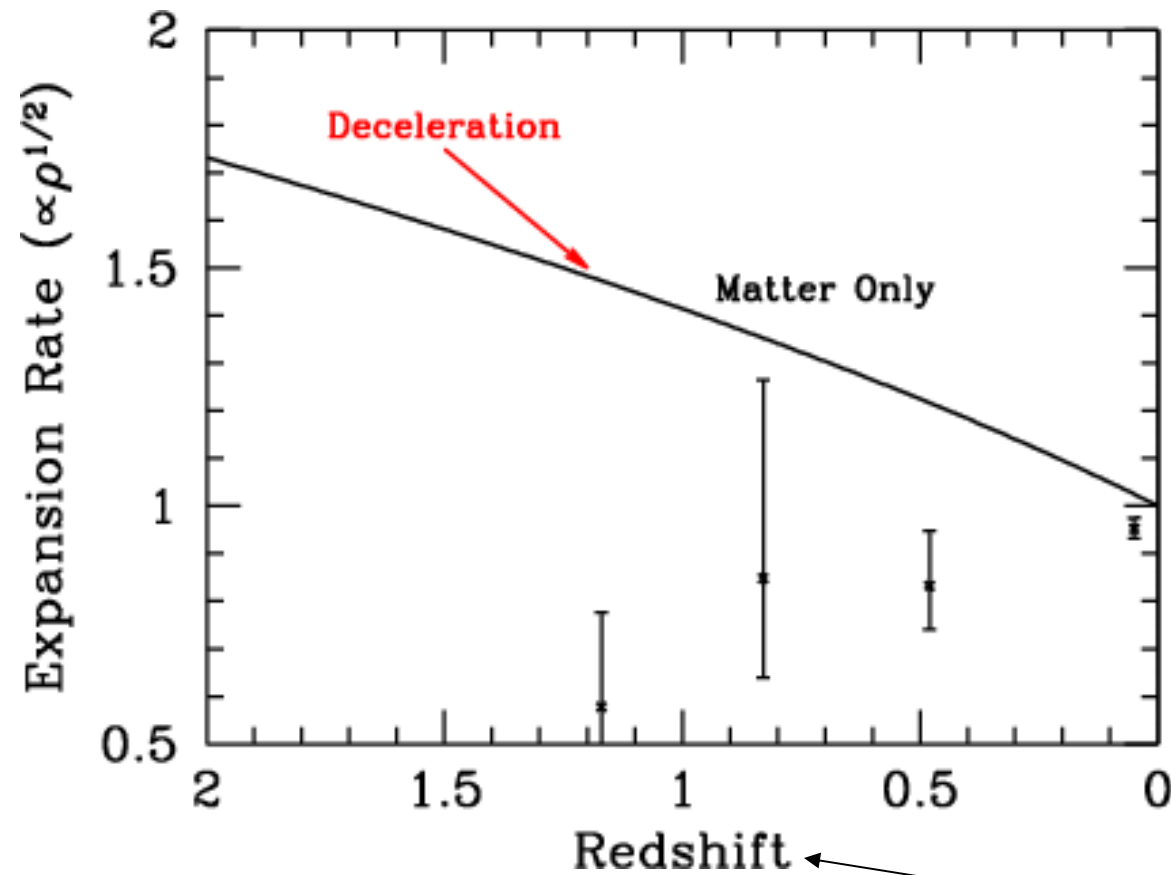
That gravity typically decelerates is intuitive



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Ordinary Matter would induce deceleration

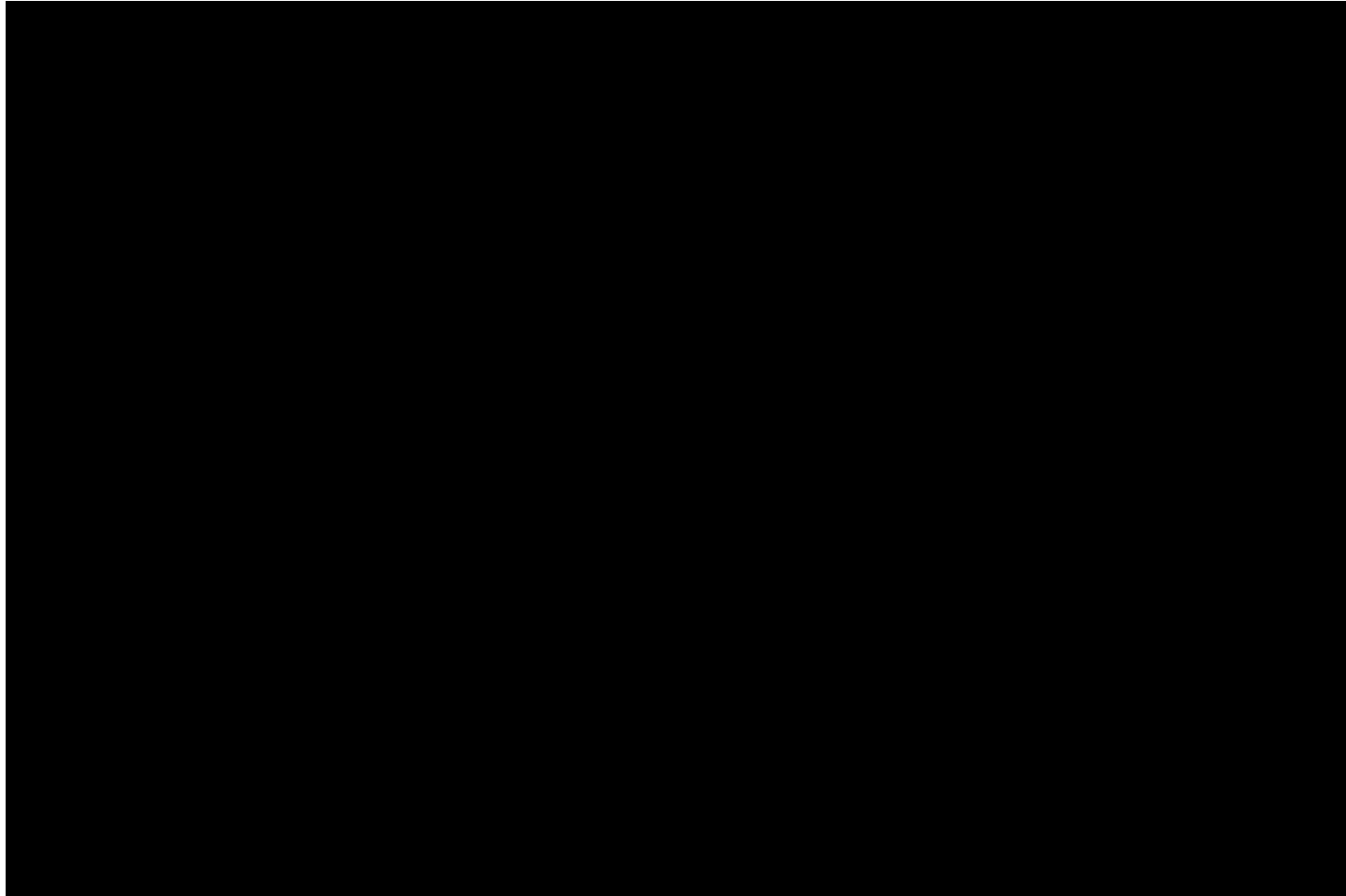


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$$z \equiv \frac{1}{a} - 1$$

So we must invoke ...



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Constituents of the Universe



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Notation

Cosmologists measure densities in units of the *critical density*,

$$\rho_{\text{cr}} = 1.88 h^2 \times 10^{-29} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$$

where h defines the Hubble constant

$$H_0 = 100h \text{ km sec}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$$

Two popular ways of writing the baryon density are:

$$\Omega_b = \rho_b / \rho_{\text{cr}}$$

$$\omega_b = \Omega_b h^2$$

The total density in the universe is equal to the critical density

$$h = 0.73 \pm 0.03$$

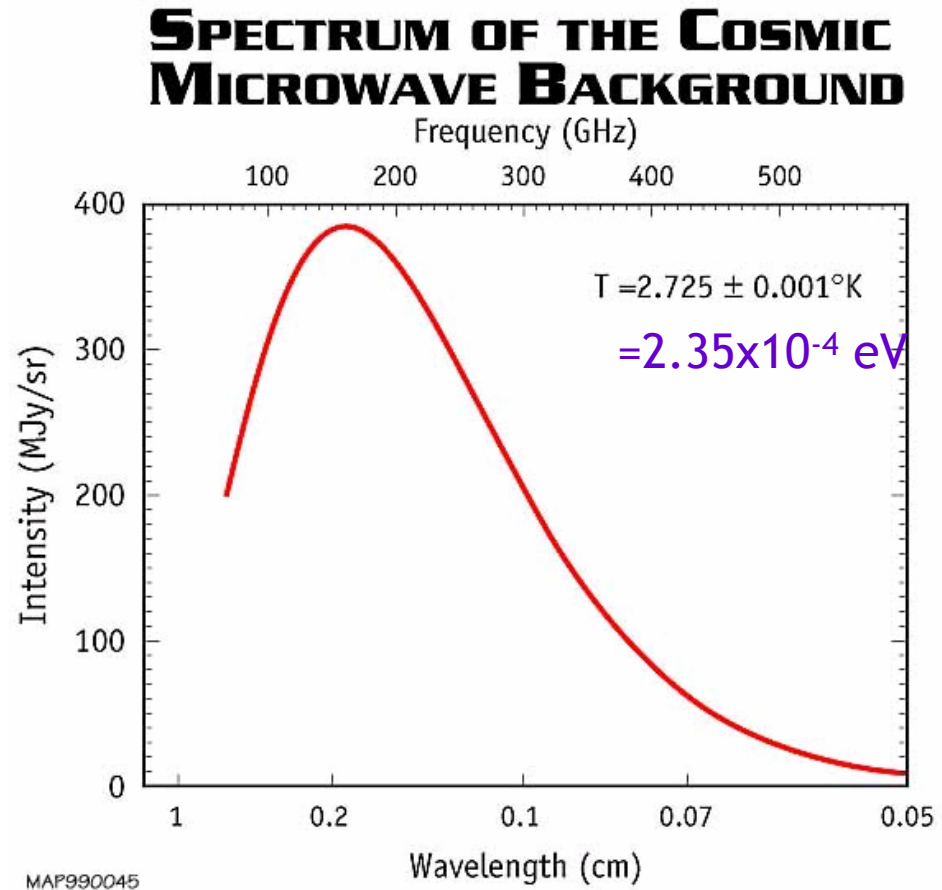
Constituents of the Universe Redux

- ☐ $\Omega_{\text{dark energy}} = 0.73 \pm 0.01$
- ☐ $\Omega_{\text{cdm}} = 0.23 \pm 0.01$
- ☐ $\Omega_{\text{b}} = 0.045 \pm 0.002$
- ☐ $0.001 < \Omega_{\text{v}} < 0.02$
- ☐ $\Omega_{\gamma} = (5.0 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{-5}$



Photon Energy Density

The temperature of the cosmic microwave background (CMB) has been measured extremely well. Turn this into a measurement of the energy density.



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Photon Energy Density

Energy density of a gas of bosons in equilibrium:

$$\rho = 2 \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} E \frac{1}{e^{E/T} - 1}$$

Spin states

Sum over phase space

Bose-Einstein distribution

For massless particles, $E=p$, so

$$\rho = \frac{8\pi}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\infty \frac{dp p^3}{e^{p/T} - 1}$$

$$= \frac{T^4}{\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{dx x^3}{e^x - 1} \xrightarrow{\pi^4/15} \rho_\gamma = \frac{\pi^2}{15} T^4$$

Evolution of the energy density

This is a snapshot of energy budget today. What did this look like in the past?



Evolution of energy density

Impose conservation of the energy-momentum tensor

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 \exp\left\{3 \int_a^1 \frac{da'}{a'} [1 + w(a')]\right\}$$

Energy density today

Equation of state:
 $w = P/\rho$

Example 1: Non-relativistic matter

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 \exp\left\{3 \int_a^1 \frac{da'}{a'} [1 + w(a')]\right\}$$

The pressure of non-relativistic matter is very small compared to the energy density ($T \ll m$), so $w=0$.

$$\rho_m = \rho_{m,0} a^{-3} \quad \text{Consistent with simple dilution by volume expansion}$$

Example 2: Relativistic particles

$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 \exp\left\{3 \int_a^1 \frac{da'}{a'} [1 + w(a')]\right\}$$

To determine w , recall that the pressure is:

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

For relativistic particles, $E=p$, so $P=\rho/3$, or $w=1/3$.

$$\rho_r = \rho_{r,0} a^{-4}$$

- Volume dilution PLUS wavelength stretching
- $T \sim 1/a$

Example 3: Cosmological Constant

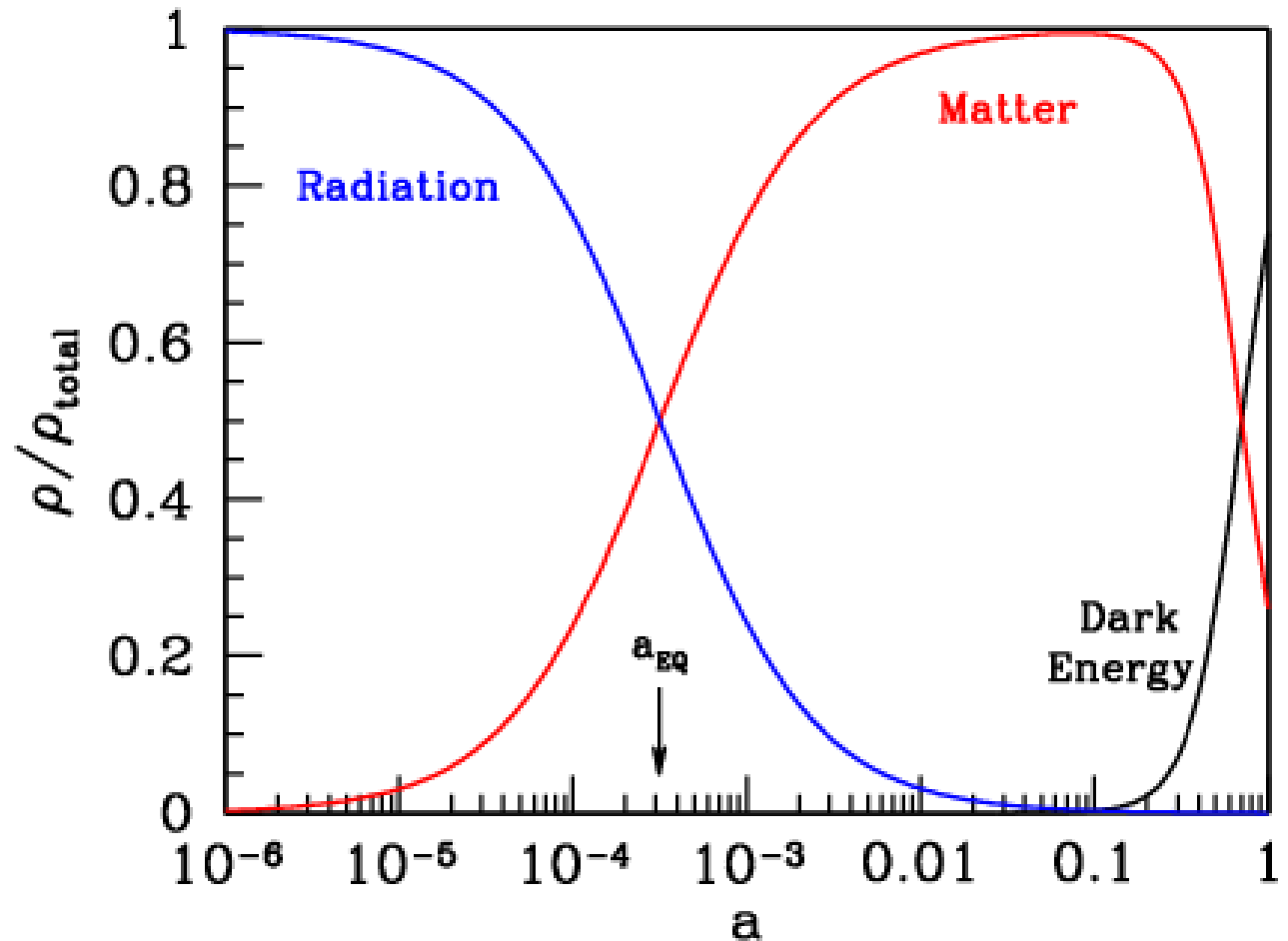
$$\rho(a) = \rho_0 \exp\left\{3 \int_a^1 \frac{da'}{a'} [1 + w(a')]\right\}$$

One possibility is that the *dark energy* is a cosmological constant with $w=-1$.

$$\rho_\Lambda = \rho_{\Lambda,0} \quad \text{Empty space contains energy}$$

Thermal History of the Universe

- The equation of state of dark energy is -1 to within 20%
- Structure begins to grow when the universe becomes matter dominated
- a_{EQ} is extremely well-determined; pins down matter density



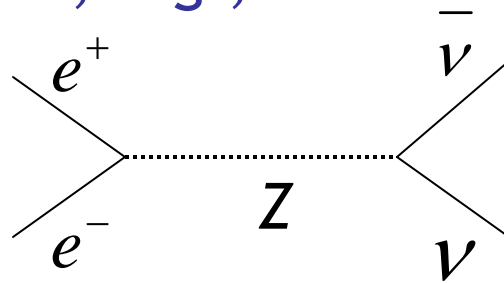
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Neutrinos are produced in the early universe

Alpher, Herman, & Gamow 1953

Assume there are no neutrinos initially when the temperature is much larger than m_e . The rate for producing them via, e.g.,



is of order

$$n\sigma \sim T^3 \frac{\alpha^2 T^2}{m_Z^4}$$

Compare this to the expansion rate

$$H = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G\rho}{3}} \sim \frac{T^2}{m_{Planck}}$$

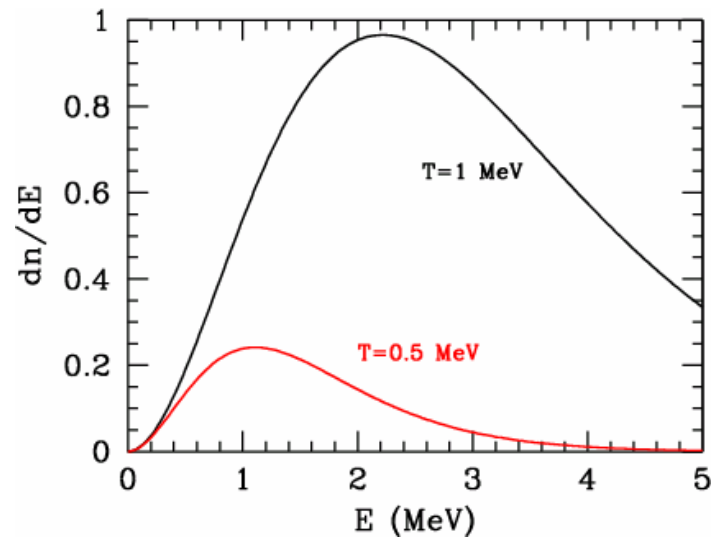
The ratio of the decay rate to the expansion rate

$$\frac{\Gamma_\nu}{H} \sim \left(\frac{T}{5MeV} \right)^3$$

$$\frac{\alpha^2 T^5}{m_Z^4} \frac{m_{Planck}}{T^2} \sim \frac{10^{-4} (1GeV)^3 (10^{19} GeV)}{(100GeV)^4} \left(\frac{T}{1GeV} \right)^3$$

Above 5 MeV, neutrinos are in equilibrium with the rest of the cosmic plasma

Fermi-Dirac distribution with temperature T equal to the electron/photon temperature.



After the neutrinos decouple from the rest of the plasma ($T < \text{MeV}$), they still maintain Fermi-Dirac distribution with $T \sim 1/a$.

You might think neutrinos and photons have the same temperature today ...

But photons gained energy from electron/positron annihilation when $T \sim m_e$

Use entropy conservation: $sa^3 = \text{constant}$

Together with the fact that the neutrino temperature does scale as a^{-1}

$$\frac{s}{T_\nu^3} = \text{const}$$

Compute this ratio before and after
electron/positron annihilation

Initially:

$$\frac{s}{T_\nu^3} = \frac{cT^3 \left(\overset{\text{photons}}{2} + \overset{\text{electrons/positrons}}{(7/8)[4 + 6]} \right)}{T^3} = c \frac{43}{4}$$

neutrinos

Finally:

$$\frac{s}{T_\nu^3} = \frac{c(2T_\gamma^3 + (7/8)6T_\nu^3)}{T_\nu^3} = c(2[T_\gamma/T_\nu]^3 + 21/4)$$

Equate the two to get:

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

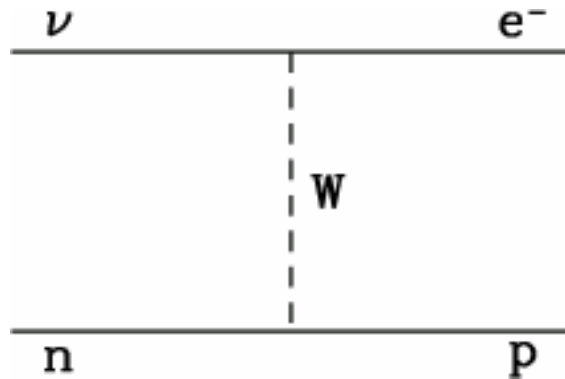
Calibrate off the well-known photon temperature
to get the prediction

$$n_{\nu\nu} = 115 N_{\nu} \text{cm}^{-3}$$

Number of species of weakly
interacting neutrinos

There are ~ a hundred quadrillion cosmic neutrinos
(flux of $115 \times 3c = 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ sec}^{-1}$) passing through
this screen ($\sim 10^4 \text{ cm}^2$) every second.

Unfortunately, we can't detect these because the cross-section is too small



$$\sigma \sim 10^{-63} \text{ cm}^2 \left(\frac{E_\nu}{10^{-4} \text{ eV}} \right)^2$$

So the detection rate is of order

$$\Gamma \sim 10^{-50} \times 10^{27} \left(\frac{M_{\text{detector}}}{1 \text{ kg}} \right) \times 3 \times 10^7 \text{ yr}^{-1}$$

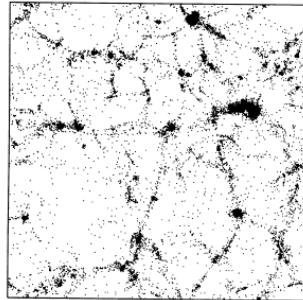
But ... these neutrinos do contribute to the energy density of the universe.

The energy density of massive neutrinos is:

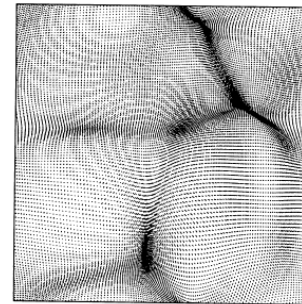
$$\Omega_\nu = \frac{\rho_\nu}{\rho_{cr}} = \frac{n_\nu \sum m_\nu}{\rho_{cr}} = \frac{0.01}{h^2} \left(\frac{\sum m_\nu}{1\text{eV}} \right)$$

This could be as large as 10% of the total matter, so affects large scale structure.

Cold Dark Matter

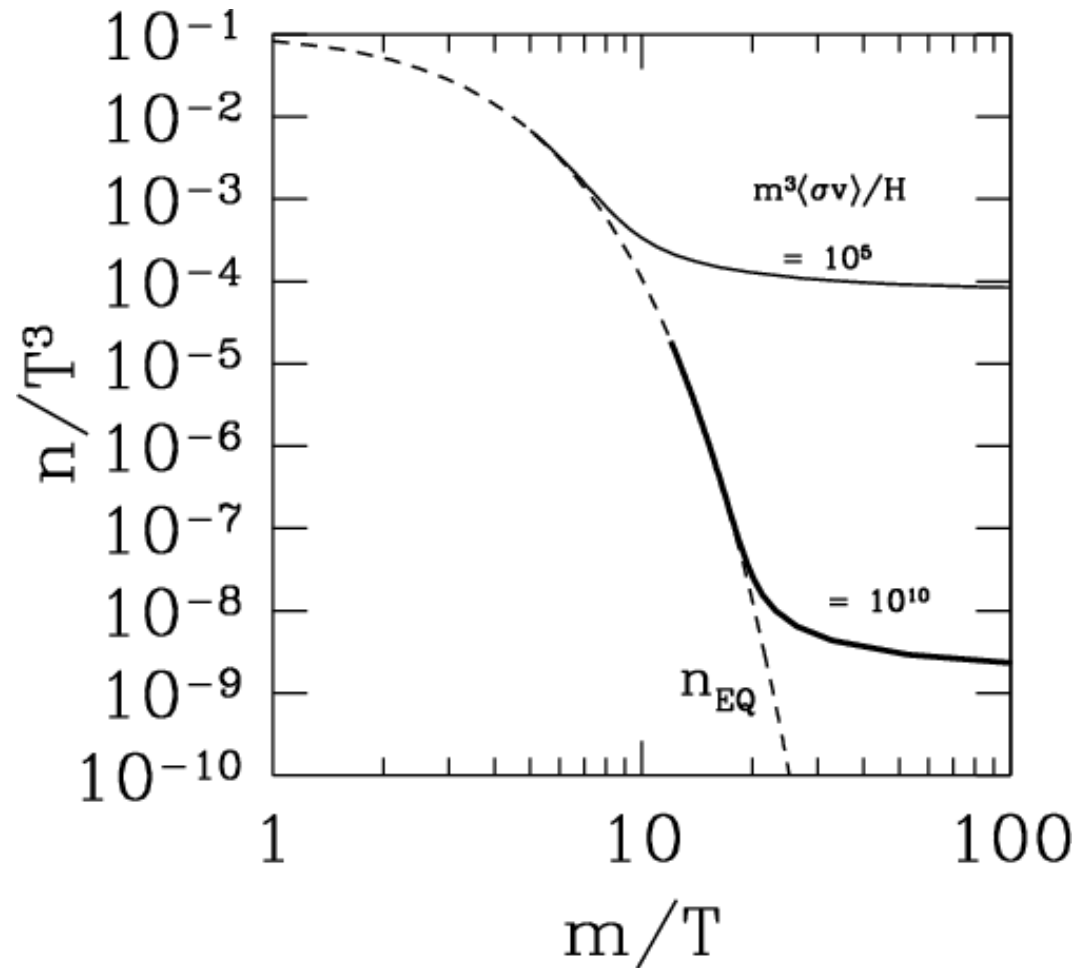


Cold+ Hot Dark Matter



Weakly interacting stable massive particles could be the dark matter

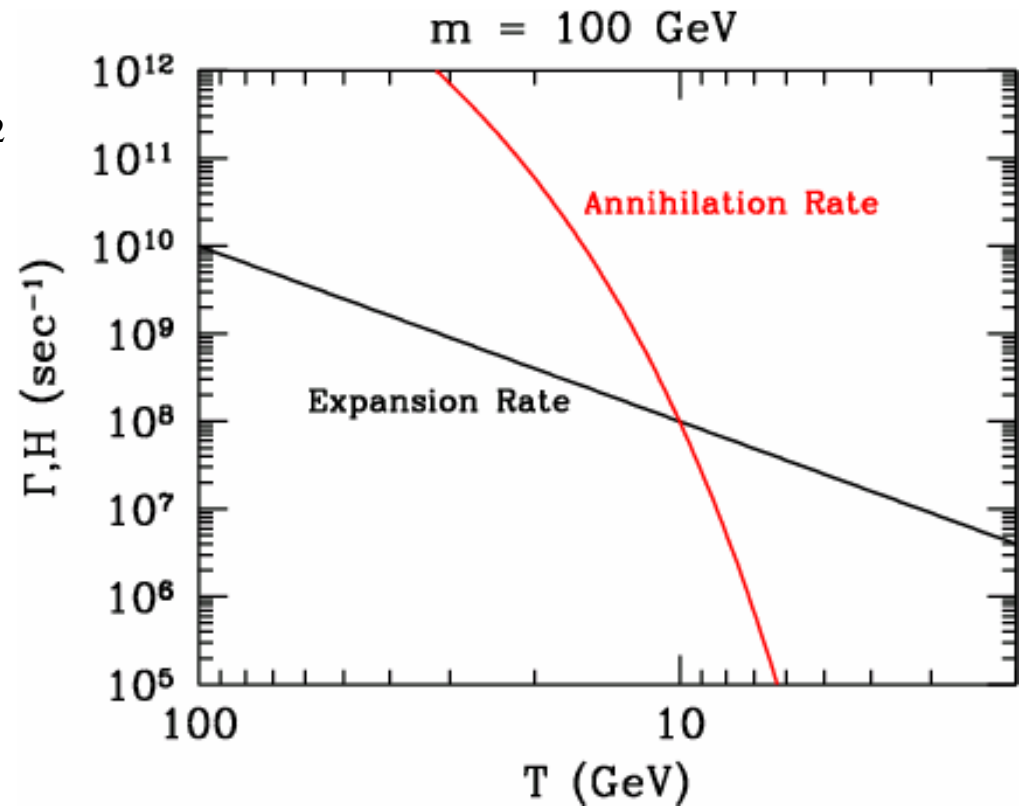
- All particles start with density roughly equal to photon density
- When temperature drops beneath mass, annihilations deplete density ...
- until freeze-out



Annihilation rate compared to expansion rate

$$\Gamma \sim n_X \sigma v \sim (mT)^{3/2} e^{-m/T} \sigma \left(\frac{T}{m} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$H \sim \frac{T^2}{m_{Planck}}$$



Freeze-out takes place when the two rates are equal

$$e^{-m/T_{fo}} \sigma m \sim m_{Planck}^{-1}$$

After freeze-out, WIMP number scales as photon number density

$$\frac{n_X}{n_\gamma} \sim \left(\frac{m}{T_{fo}} \right)^{3/2} e^{-m/T_{fo}} \sim \frac{1}{m \sigma m_{Planck}} \left(\frac{m}{T_{fo}} \right)^{3/2}$$

Multiply by mass to estimate the contribution to the energy density today

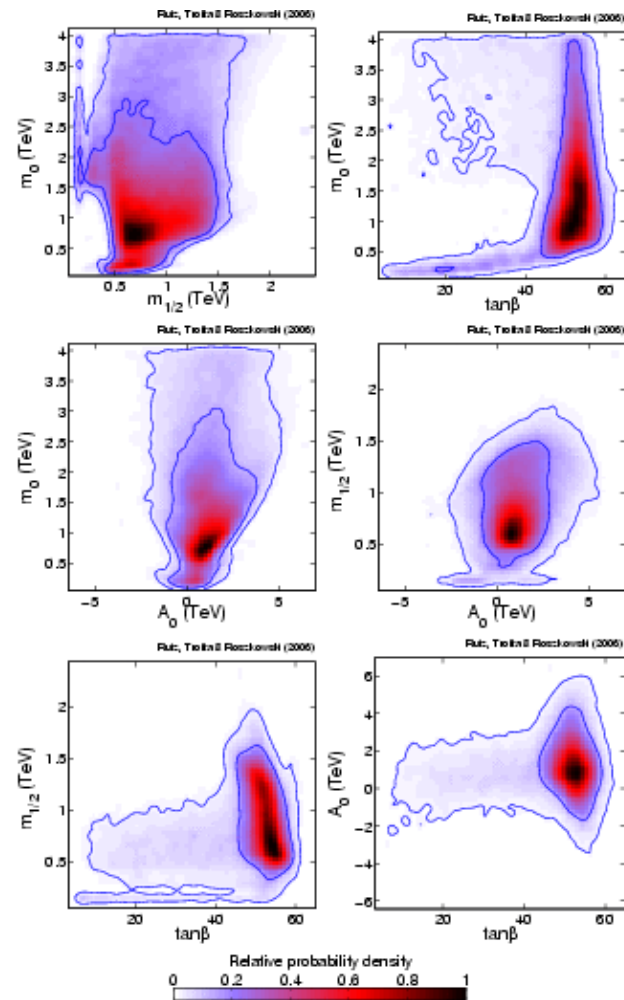
$$\Omega_x \sim \frac{T_0^3}{\rho_{cr} \sigma m_{Planck}} \left(\frac{m}{T_{fo}} \right)^{3/2}$$

Plug in numbers

$$\Omega_x = 0.3 h^{-2} \left(\frac{m}{10 T_{fo}} \right)^{3/2} \frac{10^{-37} \text{ cm}^2}{\sigma}$$

Mild mass dependence, but mostly depends on cross-section only.

Easy to get correct dark matter abundance in supersymmetric models



De Austri, Trotta, & Roszkowski 2006

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Final Slide



If you want to get your hands dirty check out ...

<http://www.physto.se/~edsjo/darksusy/>

Meet me at the bar tonight if you have a good idea about ...

Models which simultaneously produce dark matter and dark energy