#### International Oslo School, May 14–26, 2017

#### Introduction to cosmology of early universe

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#### Outline

**Basics** 

Physics in the early universe

Inflation

Dark energy

Dark matter

Baryon asymmetry



#### Basics

Physics in the early univers

Inflation

Dark energy

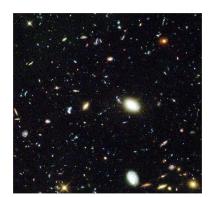
Dark matte

Baryon asymmetry

## The world of galaxies

Dimension  $\approx$  20 kpc





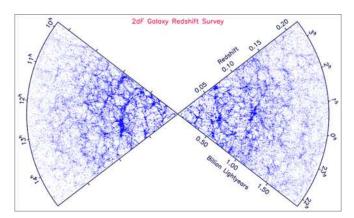
Characteristic intergalactic distance:

Megaparsec (Mpc)  $\approx 3.26 \times 10^6$  light yr  $\approx 3 \times 10^{24}$  cm



# Cosmological principle

The universe is homogeneous and isotropic on large spatial scales ( $\gtrsim 100~{\rm Mpc})$ 



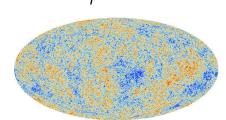
# Temperature of cosmic microwave background (CMB) as a function of direction

Signifies isotropy of the early universe

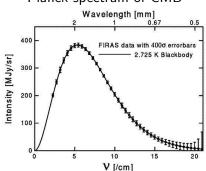
Everywhere isotropic universe is also homogeneous!

$$T = 2.725 \pm 0.002 \text{ K}$$

$$\frac{\Delta T}{T} \sim 10^{-5}$$

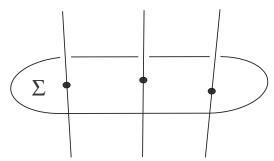


#### Planck spectrum of CMB



# Fundamental (isotropic) observers

These are conventional observers for whom CMB is maximally isotropic



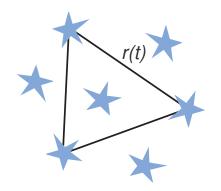
Centers of galaxies as "almost" isotropic observers ( $v\sim 10^{-3}c$ )

Copernican principle and cosmological principle

# The universe is expanding remaining homogeneous and isotropic!

The scale factor:

$$r(t) = a(t) r_0$$



Hubble law: 
$$\dot{r} = Hr$$

Hubble parameter: 
$$H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

Hubble constant:

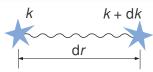
$$H_0 \approx 70 \text{ km/s Mpc}$$

Age of universe:

$$t_0 \sim H_0^{-1} \simeq 10^{10} \ \text{yr}$$

Velocity  $v = \dot{r}$  is measured by redshift of spectral lines in remote galaxies

## Cosmological redshift



Performing Lorentz transformation with  $v_{\rm rel} \ll c$ , we have (*exercise*)

Relative velocity:

$$v_{\rm rel} = Hdr \ll c = 1$$

$$dk = -kHdt$$

$$\frac{dk}{k} = -Hdt = -\frac{da}{a} \quad \Rightarrow \quad k \propto \frac{1}{a}$$

For photons,  $k = \hbar \omega/c$ , which determines redshift z:

$$1+z \equiv \frac{\omega_{\rm em}}{\omega_{\rm obs}} = \frac{a_0}{a}$$

## Measures of cosmological time

It can be "marked" in different ways:

- Physical time *t* by conventional clocks of isotropic observers
- Scale factor a(t)
- Cosmological redshift  $z = a_0/a(t) 1$

# General theory of relativity

The scale factor is an element of space-time metric:

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - a^2(t) \frac{dr^2}{(1 + \kappa r^2/4)^2}$$

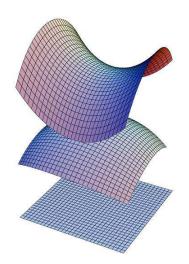
$$\kappa = \pm 1/r_0^2$$

The parameter  $0 < r_0 \le \infty$  describes curvature of space

Current constraint:

$$a_0 r_0 \gtrsim \frac{1}{0.1 H_0} \simeq 43 \text{ Gpc}$$

and this curvature is practically insignificant (the space is Euclidean)

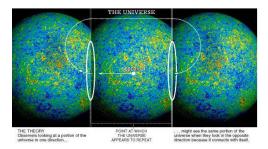


#### The space of the universe

Is its volume finite or infinite?

- In the case of positive curvature  $(\kappa > 0)$ , the space is finite (local metric is that of three-sphere, topology may be different)
- In the case of non-positive curvature ( $\kappa \leq 0$ ), the space can be infinite or finite depending on topology

Topology is in principle testable



Picture by Max Tegmark



## Dynamics of the universe expansion

Einstein equation (with two fundamental constants):

$$R_{\mu\nu} - rac{1}{2}Rg_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi GT_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu}$$

Friedmann equations:

$$H^2 + \frac{\kappa}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

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

Currently accepted model is called  $\Lambda$ CDM ( $\Lambda$  + Cold Dark Matter)

Note: this model runs into a singularity since  $\ddot{a} < 0$  in the past

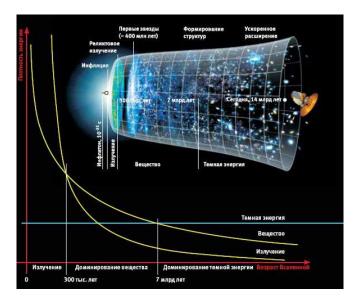
#### Main types of substance

- Matter (nonrelativistic):  $p \ll \rho$ ,  $\rho = mn \propto a^{-3}$
- Radiation (relativistic):  $p = \rho/3$ ,  $\rho = En \propto a^{-4}$
- "Vacuum":  $p = -\rho = \text{const (equivalent to } \Lambda)$

This is the only law compatible with local Lorentz invariance of  $T^{\mu}_{\ \nu}=(\rho+p)u^{\mu}u_{\nu}-p\delta^{\mu}_{\ \nu}$ 

In the currently standard cosmological model, the universe is dominated, in turn, by *radiation*, *matter*, and *dark energy* ( $\Lambda$  or something else)

#### Modern picture of evolution of the universe





#### The $\Omega$ parameters

The Friedmann equation can be recast in the form

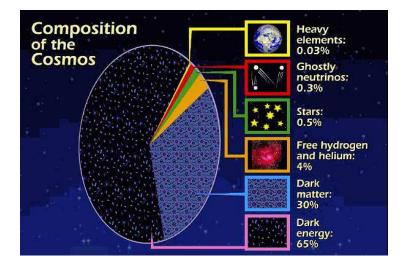
$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho - \frac{\kappa}{a^2} + \frac{\Lambda}{3}$$

$$H^2(z) = H_0^2 \Big[ \Omega_r (1+z)^4 + \Omega_m (1+z)^3 + \Omega_\kappa (1+z)^2 + \Omega_\Lambda \Big]$$
 
$$\Omega_r + \Omega_m + \Omega_\kappa + \Omega_\Lambda = 1$$

$$\Omega_{\Lambda} \approx 0.7 \,, \quad \Omega_{\textit{m}} \approx 0.3 \,, \quad \Omega_{\textit{r}} \approx 8.5 \times 10^{-5} \,, \quad |\Omega_{\kappa}| \lesssim 0.005 \label{eq:constraints}$$

Matter-radiation equality:  $z_{\rm eq} = \Omega_m/\Omega_r - 1 \approx 3400$ 

#### Current composition of the universe



Basic

#### Physics in the early universe

Inflation

Dark energy

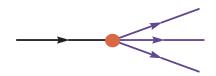
Dark matte

Baryon asymmetry

# System of units

$$\hbar=c=1$$

#### Kinetics in the hot expanding universe



Mean free time of a particle

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\sigma n v}$$

 $\sigma$  – cross-section

*n* – number density of target particles

v – mean relative velocity

In the expanding universe, particles additionally recede from each other. The condition of local thermodynamical equilibrium becomes

$$au \ll t_{
m expansion} = rac{1}{H} \qquad {
m or} \qquad \Gamma \equiv \sigma n v \gg H$$

In the opposite case  $\Gamma \ll H$ , particles become free (decoupling or freeze-out)

## Thermodynamics

Partition function for grand canonical ensemble

$$Z\left(T,V,\{\mu_{i}\}\right) = \sum_{\mathrm{states}} e^{\left(\sum_{i} \mu_{i} Q_{i} - E\right)/T} = \sum_{\mathrm{states}} e^{\left(\sum_{A} \mu_{A} N_{A} - E\right)/T}$$

 $\mu_i$  is the chemical potential corresponding to a conserved charge  $Q_i$ . The last equality is obtained by using

$$\sum_{i} \mu_{i} Q_{i} = \sum_{i} \mu_{i} \sum_{A} Q_{i}^{A} N_{A} = \sum_{A} \mu_{A} N_{A}$$

with  $Q_i^A$  being the  $i^{th}$  charge of particle species A, and

$$\mu_{A} = \sum_{i} \mu_{i} Q_{i}^{A}$$

is their chemical potential. Particles and antiparticles have opposite charges, hence, opposite chemical potentials  $\Rightarrow \mu_{\gamma} = 0$ 

#### Chemical potentials

A simple consequence of the conservation of the total charges  $Q_i$  is that if there are reactions between particles in equilibrium

$$A_1 + \cdots + A_n \rightleftharpoons B_1 + \cdots + B_m$$

then the corresponding chemical potentials are related by

$$\mu_{A_1} + \cdots + \mu_{A_n} = \mu_{B_1} + \cdots + \mu_{B_m}$$

Proof:

$$\sum_{i} \mu_{i} \times Q_{i}^{A_{1}} + \cdots + Q_{i}^{A_{n}} = Q_{i}^{B_{1}} + \cdots + Q_{i}^{B_{m}}$$

Example: ionization/recombination of hydrogen:  $p + e^- \leftrightarrow H + \gamma$ 

$$\mu_{p} + \mu_{e^{-}} = \mu_{H}$$

#### Nonrelativistic particles

Mean occupation numbers for particles in equilibrium

$$f_{\epsilon} = rac{1}{\exp{rac{\epsilon - \mu}{T}} \pm 1} \quad \left\{ egin{array}{ll} + & {\sf Fermi-Dirac} \\ - & {\sf Bose-Einstein} \end{array} 
ight.$$

Number density for nonrelativistic particles:

$$n = g \left(\frac{mT}{2\pi}\right)^{3/2} e^{(\mu - m)/T}$$

where g is the number of internal degrees of freedom (spin, colour, etc)

#### Recombination of hydrogen

Thermal equilibrium is maintained due to the processes  $p, e^- \rightleftharpoons H, \gamma$ . The Saha equation:

$$rac{n_p n_e}{n_{
m H}} pprox \left(rac{m_e T}{2\pi}
ight)^{3/2} e^{-I_{
m H}/T} \,, \qquad I_{
m H} = m_p + m_e - m_{
m H}$$

The hydrogen ionization energy  $\it I_{\rm H} = 13.6\,{\rm eV} = 1.58 \times 10^5\,{\rm K}$ 

- Use two conditions:
  - Electroneutrality:  $n_p = n_e$
  - Mean number density of hydrogen nuclei is determined by  $\eta = n_b/n_\gamma = 6 \cdot 10^{-10}$

One independent variable remains, e.g.,  $X_p = \frac{n_p}{n_p + n_H}$ 

Taking, e.g.,  $X_p=0.1$  and solving the Saha equation, we obtain recombination temperature  $T_{\rm rec}\simeq 3400$  K, which corresponds to  $z_{\rm rec}\simeq 1250,\ t_{\rm rec}=400$  thousand years

## Decoupling of relic photons

Scattering rate of photons off free electrons is  $\Gamma = \sigma_T n_e c$ . The Thomson cross-section

$$\sigma_T = \frac{8\pi}{3} \left( \frac{e^2}{m_e c^2} \right)^2 = 0.67 \times 10^{-24} \, \text{cm}^2$$

From the Saha equation,

$$n_{\rm e} \simeq n_{\rm H}^{1/2} \left(\frac{m_{\rm e} T}{2\pi}\right)^{3/4} {\rm e}^{-I_{\rm H}/2T}$$

Rate of the universe expansion (matter dominates)

$$H \simeq \left(\frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho_m\right)^{1/2} \simeq H_0 \Omega_m^{1/2} (1+z)^{3/2} = H_0 \Omega_m^{1/2} \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{3/2}$$

The condition  $\Gamma \lesssim H$  starts at  $T_{\rm dec} = 0.26 \, {\rm eV} = 3070 \, {\rm K}$ , or  $z_{\rm dec} \simeq 1130 \, {\rm eV}$ 

## Energy density of relativistic particles

At  $T \gg m$ ,  $|\mu|$ , we have

$$\rho_r(T) = \frac{\pi^2}{30} g T^4, \qquad g = \sum_b g_b + \frac{7}{8} \sum_f g_f$$

$$H(t) = \left(\frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho_r\right)^{1/2} = 1.66\sqrt{g(t)G}\ T^2 = \sqrt{G_*}\ T^2$$

Age of hot universe as a function of temperature:

$$t \simeq rac{1}{2H} = rac{1}{2\sqrt{G_*} T^2} \simeq rac{2.4}{\sqrt{g}} \left(rac{\mathsf{MeV}}{T}
ight)^2 \ \mathsf{s}$$

#### Decoupling of neutrino

Typical processes:

$$\nu e^{\pm} \rightleftharpoons \nu e^{\pm}, \qquad \nu \bar{\nu} \rightleftharpoons e^{+} e^{-}, \qquad \nu \bar{\nu} \rightleftharpoons \nu \bar{\nu}$$

Effective cross-section is  $\sigma \simeq G_F^2 E^2$ , where  $G_F \simeq 1.17 \times 10^{-5} \text{ GeV}^{-2}$  is the Fermi constant. Using  $E \sim T$  and equating the rates, we obtain

$$\Gamma = \sigma n v \sim G_F^2 T^2 \times T^3 = H = \sqrt{G_*} T^2$$

At anticipated temperatures, the relativistic plasma consists of e $^\pm$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\nu_e$ ,  $\nu_\mu$ ,  $\nu_\tau$ ,  $\bar{\nu}_e$ ,  $\bar{\nu}_\mu$ ,  $\bar{\nu}_\tau$ , leading to g=39/4=9.75. Hence, the neutrino decoupling temperature

$$T_* \sim rac{G_*^{1/6}}{G_F^{2/3}} \simeq 1.5 \; {\sf MeV}$$

Today, we have  $T_{\nu}=1.95$  K Somewhat lower than  $T_{\gamma}=2.73$  K because annihilation of  $e^+e^-$  at  $T\simeq 0.5$  MeV heat up the CMB



#### Neutron concentration freeze-out

The main processes are  $n + \nu_e \rightleftarrows p + e^-$ ,  $n + e^+ \rightleftarrows p + \bar{\nu}_e$ Characteristic energy parameters:

$$\Delta m \equiv m_n - n_p = 1.3 \text{ MeV}, \qquad m_e = 0.5 \text{ MeV}.$$

Free time of neutrons can be estimated as

$$\Gamma \simeq G_F^2 T^5$$
 (cf. with  $= \sqrt{G_*} T^2$ )

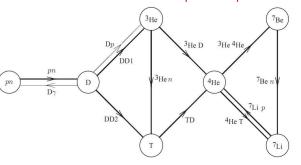
Accurate calculation using the condition  $H \simeq \Gamma$  gives  $T_n \approx 0.8$  MeV. We obtain neutron–proton relation at the time of freeze-out:

$$\frac{n_n}{n_p} = e^{-\frac{\Delta m}{T_n}} \approx \frac{1}{5}$$

Note: Fundamental constants and life in the universe

# Big-Bang Nucleosynthesis (BBN)

#### out-of-equilibrium process!



From: Mukhanov, Principles of Physical Cosmology (2005)

 $\Delta_{^4\mathrm{He}}/N=7.75$  MeV, but the first step of nucleosynthesis is production of deuterium:

$$p + n 
ightleftharpoons D + \gamma$$
,  $\Delta_{\mathrm{D}} \equiv m_p + m_n - m_{\mathrm{D}} \simeq 2.23 \; \mathsf{MeV}$ 

Because of large number of highly energetic photons and relatively small binding energy of D, nucleosynthesis is delayed till  $T_{\rm NS}\approx 70$  keV. This phenomenon is called deuterium bottleneck.

#### Estimate of helium production

Age of the universe at the time of neutron decoupling:

$$t_n = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{G_*} T_n^2} \approx 1 \text{ s}, \qquad \frac{n_n}{n_p} = e^{-\Delta m/T_n} \approx \frac{1}{5}$$

Age of the universe at the time of commencement of nucleosynthesis

$$t_{\rm NS} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{G_*} \, T_{\rm NS}^2} \approx 269 \, {\rm s} \, ,$$

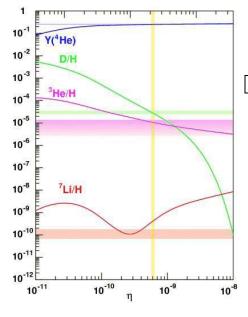
Lifetime of free neutrons is  $\tau_n \approx 886$  s, whence

$$\left. \frac{n_n}{n_p} \right|_{T_{\rm NS}} \approx \frac{1}{5} \cdot e^{-t_{\rm NS}/\tau_n} \approx \frac{1}{7}$$

Mass fraction of helium:

$$Y_{^{4}\mathrm{He}} = \frac{M_{\mathrm{He}}}{M_{b}} = \frac{2}{\frac{n_{a}}{n_{p}}\Big|_{T_{\mathrm{MG}}} + 1} \approx 0.25$$

#### BBN and observations



$$\eta = \frac{n_b}{n_\gamma} \approx 6 \times 10^{-10}$$

#### Where does this number come from?

The smallness of this number is the reason why the universe is qualified as "hot"

$$n_{\gamma}(t_0) = rac{2\,\zeta(3)}{\pi^2}\,T_{\gamma}^3 pprox 410\,{
m cm}^{-3}$$

This determines the mean number density of baryons today:

$$n_b(t_0) = 2.7 \times 10^{-7} \,\mathrm{cm}^{-3}$$

# Thermodynamic history of the universe

- $T \sim 200$  GeV: symmetric electroweak phase, g = 106.75
- $T \sim 120$  GeV: electroweak symmetry breaking (cross-over), annihilation of  $t\bar{t}$  quarks, g=96.25
- T < 80 GeV: annihilation of  $W^{\pm}$ ,  $Z^{0}$ ,  $H^{0}$ , g = 86.25
- T < 4 GeV:  $b\bar{b}$  annihilation, g = 75.75
- T < 1 GeV:  $\tau^- \tau^+$  annihilation, g = 72.25
- $T\sim 150$  MeV: epoch of QCD; quarks and gluons are confined, forming baryons and mesons. Light hadrons (pions), leptons and photons give g=17.25
- T < 100 MeV: annihilation of pions  $\pi^{\pm}$ ,  $\pi^{0}$  and muons  $\mu^{\pm}$ . Remaining particles  $e^{\pm}$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\nu$  give  $g_{\epsilon} = 10.75$
- $T \sim 1$  MeV: decoupling of neutrinos
- T < 500 keV: annihilation of  $e^+e^-$ , g = 3.36



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Physics in the early universe

#### Inflation

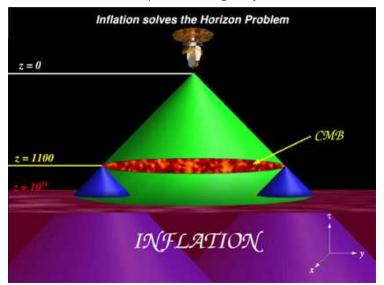
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Dark matte

Baryon asymmetry

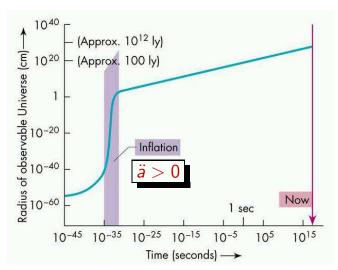
#### Problem of initial conditions

and problem of singularity



#### Cosmological inflation

beyond the physical horizon!



#### Brief history

- Gliner (1965) vacuum-like state before the hot phase
- Bugrij & Trushevsky (1975) first-order phase transition with supercooling in nuclear matter
- Starobinsky (1979) gravity with R<sup>2</sup> correction
- Guth (1981) GUT with first-order phase transition and supercooling (proposed the term "inflation")
- Linde (1982, 1983) field theory with generic initial conditions ("chaotic inflation")



Alan H. Guth Massachusetts Institute o Technology, US



Andrei D. Linde Stanford University, US



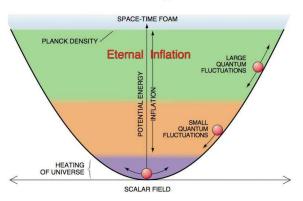
Alexei A. Starobinsky Landau Institute for Theoretical Physics Russian Academy of Sciences. Russia

Kavli prize in astrophysics 2014



## The simplest model of inflation

$$\ddot{\phi} + 3H\dot{\phi} + V'(\phi) = 0$$
$$V(\phi) = \frac{m^2}{2}\phi^2$$

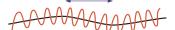


Regime of "slow rolling"

$$\left|\dot{\phi}/\phi\right| \ll H \equiv \dot{a}/a$$
 $\dot{\phi} \approx -\frac{V'(\phi)}{3H}$ 
 $H^2 \approx \frac{8\pi G}{3}V(\phi)$ 
 $|\dot{H}| \ll H^2$ 

quasi-exponential expansion

# Inflationary origin of primordial perturbations





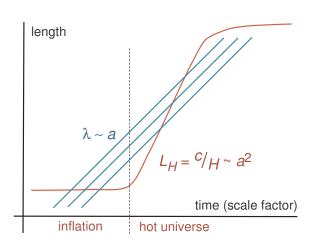
The inflaton field and the metric are perturbed by quantum uncertainties:

$$ds^2 = a^2(\eta) \Big[ (1 + 2\Phi) d\eta^2 - (1 - 2\Psi) dx^2 + \frac{h_{ij}}{h_{ij}} dx^i dx^j \Big]$$

- $\Phi$ ,  $\Psi$  scalar type, accompanied by energy density perturbations  $\delta \equiv \delta \rho/\rho$ ,  ${\bf v} = \nabla v$ 
  - $\Phi = \Psi$  in the model with single inflaton
- h<sub>ij</sub> tensor type (gravitational waves), transverse traceless field

# Inflationary origin of primordial perturbations

Mukhanov & Chibisov (1981)



How do quantum uncertainties become classical?

# Power spectra of primordial perturbations

Scalar field (inflaton) with potential  $V(\phi)$ 

$$\langle \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \Phi(\mathbf{y}) \rangle = \int \mathcal{P}_{\Phi}(k) e^{\mathrm{i}\mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})} \frac{d^{3}\mathbf{k}}{4\pi k^{3}} \qquad \mathcal{P}_{\Phi}(k) = \frac{\hbar H_{k}^{4}}{4\pi^{2} \dot{\phi}_{k}^{2}} = \frac{128\pi \hbar G^{3} \left[ V(\phi_{k}) \right]^{3}}{3 \left[ V'(\phi_{k}) \right]^{2}}$$

$$\langle h_{ij}(\mathbf{x})h^{ij}(\mathbf{y})\rangle = \int \mathcal{P}_h(\mathbf{k})e^{\mathrm{i}\mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y})}\frac{d^3\mathbf{k}}{4\pi k^3} \quad \mathcal{P}_h(\mathbf{k}) = \frac{16}{\pi}\hbar GH_k^2 = \frac{128}{3}\hbar G^2V(\phi_k)$$

Conventional parameterization:

$$\mathcal{P}_{\Phi}(k) = A_{S} \left(\frac{k}{k_{*}}\right)^{n_{S}(k)-1} \qquad \mathcal{P}_{h}(k) = A_{T} \left(\frac{k}{k_{*}}\right)^{n_{T}(k)}$$

$$r(k) \equiv \frac{\mathcal{P}_h(k)}{\mathcal{P}_{\Phi}(k)} = \frac{1}{\pi G} \left[ \frac{V'(\phi_k)}{V(\phi_k)} \right]^2 \approx 0.2$$

$$n_S(k) - 1 \approx -0.04$$

$$n_T(k) \approx -0.03$$
 in simplest models



# Main predictions of inflationary scenario

1. Flatness (or Euclidean property) of space  $(\Omega = 1 \text{ with high precision})$ 

$$H^2 = -\frac{\kappa}{a^2} + \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho, \qquad |\Omega_{\kappa}| = \frac{|\kappa|}{a_0^2 H_0^2} \lesssim 10^{-5}$$

 Adiabatic initial density perturbations with almost scale-invariant spectrum and Gaussian statistics [Mukhanov & Chibisov (1981), ...]

$$\mathcal{P}_{\Phi}(k) = A_S \left(\frac{k}{k_*}\right)^{n_S(k)-1}, \quad n_S(k) \approx 0.96$$

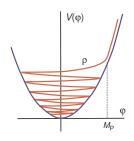
3. Relic gravitational waves [Grishchuk (1975), Starobinsky (1979), ...]

$$\mathcal{P}_h(k) = A_T \left(\frac{k}{k_*}\right)^{n_T(k)}, \quad n_T(k) \approx -0.03$$

# Heating the universe after inflation

#### Model interaction:

Phase trajectory of the scalar field  $\varphi(t)$ 



$$L_{\rm int} = -f \frac{\varphi}{\psi} \psi - \eta \frac{\varphi}{\psi} \chi^2$$

Rate of inflaton decay into other particles (Born approximation):

$$\Gamma_{\psi} \simeq rac{f^2}{4\pi}\,\omega\,, \qquad \Gamma_{\chi} \simeq rac{\eta^2}{4\pi\omega}$$

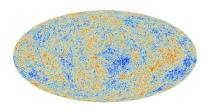


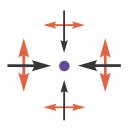
For strong coupling, the leading effect is parametric resonance [J. Traschen & R. Brandenberger (1990), Yu.S., J. Traschen &

R. Brandenberger (1994), L. Kofman, A. Linde & A. Starobinsky (1994)].

For weak coupling, Born approximation works because of universe expansion [I. Rudenok, Yu.S., S. Vilchinskii (2014)]

## CMB temperature anisotropy and polarization





#### Temperature anisotropy: $\Delta T(\mathbf{n})$

Polarization is caused by quadrupole anisotropy of the incident flow of last scattered photons

CMB polarization tensor

$$\mathcal{P}_{ab} = \frac{\langle E_a E_b^* \rangle}{\langle E_c E_c^* \rangle} - \frac{1}{2} g_{ab} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \begin{array}{cc} Q & U \\ U & -Q \end{array} \right)$$

*E* and *B* polarization modes:  $E(\mathbf{n}) \equiv \nabla^a \nabla^b \mathcal{P}_{ab}$ ,  $B(\mathbf{n}) \equiv \nabla^a \nabla^c \mathcal{P}_a{}^b \epsilon_{cb}$ 

# Correlation functions and spectra $C_\ell$

Integer  $\ell$  corresponds to angular scale  $\theta \sim \pi/\ell$ 

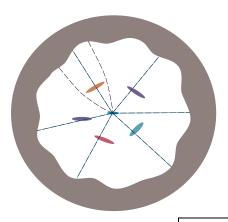
$$\langle \Delta T(\mathbf{n}_1) \Delta T(\mathbf{n}_2) \rangle = \frac{1}{4\pi} \sum_{\ell} (2\ell + 1) C_{\ell}^{TT} P_{\ell} (\cos \theta)$$

$$\langle \Delta T(\mathbf{n}_1) E(\mathbf{n}_2) \rangle = \frac{1}{4\pi} \sum_{\ell} (2\ell + 1) C_{\ell}^{TE} P_{\ell} (\cos \theta)$$

$$\langle E(\mathbf{n}_1) E(\mathbf{n}_2) \rangle = \frac{1}{4\pi} \sum_{\ell} (2\ell + 1) C_{\ell}^{EE} P_{\ell} (\cos \theta)$$

$$\langle B(\mathbf{n}_1) B(\mathbf{n}_2) \rangle = \frac{1}{4\pi} \sum_{\ell} (2\ell + 1) C_{\ell}^{BB} P_{\ell} (\cos \theta)$$

# CMB on the way to Earth



The last-scattering surface is 'thick'

 $z_{\rm rec} \simeq 1100$   $\Delta z_{\rm rec} \approx 300$ 

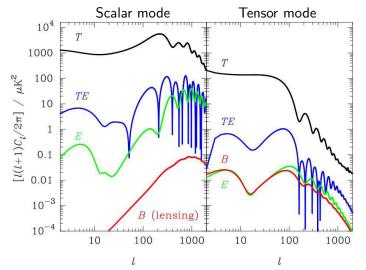
 $T_{\rm rec} \simeq 3000 \, {
m K} \quad T_0 = 2.725 \, {
m K}$ 

CMB is additionally lensed by the LSS

Its spectrum is also distorted by rescattering on hot gas in clusters (Zunyaev–Zeldovich effect)



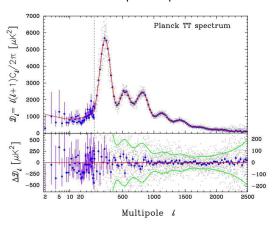
# Contribution of scalar and tensor modes to CMB temperature anisotropy and polarization





# Temperature anisotropy

#### Planck TT power spectrum



$$\mathcal{P}_{\Phi}(k) = A_{S} \left(\frac{k}{k_{*}}\right)^{n_{S}(k)-1}$$

Planck (2015):

$$n_S = 0.9655 \pm 0.0062$$

In 2013 it was first established that  $n_S < 1$ , as predicted by a simple class of inflationary theories

Position of the peaks depends on the cosmological parameters, including the spatial curvature  $(\Omega_{\kappa})$  and amount of dark matter  $(\Omega_{c}) \longrightarrow \text{gives}$  the most accurate estimate for these parameters

# CMB polarisaton and primordial gravitational waves

A joint analysis of BICEP2/KEK and Planck (2015) gives an upper limit

Inflationary models are 'filtered'

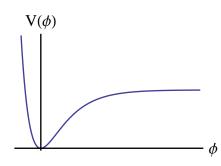
Best-fit models based on 'plateau' potential:

Starobinsky model (1979)

$$\mathcal{L}_{
m grav} \propto R + \alpha R^2$$

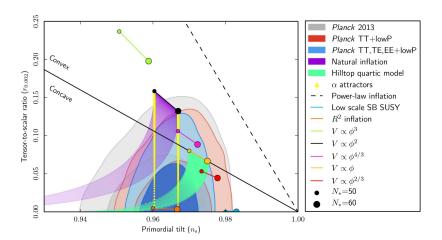
 Higgs inflation (Bezrukov & Shaposhnikov, 2007)

$$\mathcal{L}_{
m grav} \propto \left(M_{
m P}^2 + \xi h^2 
ight) R$$



These models predict  $r \approx 0.003$ 

# Planck constraints on inflationary models (2015)

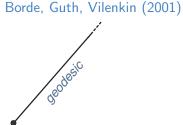


#### Eternal inflation

# Multiverse

Did it have a beginning?

Inflationary space-time is geodesically incomplete in the past



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Physics in the early universe

Inflation

Dark energy

Dark matte

Baryon asymmetry

# Dark energy

 About 7 billion years ago, the universe proceeded to accelerated expansion:

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

It is inflation, but on a much lower energy scale

- In frames of homogeneous cosmology based on GR, one needs either dark energy a form of energy with  $\rho+3p<0$ , or the cosmological constant  $\Lambda$
- Alternative explanation: effect of inhomogeneities of the universe on relatively small scales (clusters of galaxies)
   Buchert, Ellis, Wiltshire, ... Criticized by Green & Wald

# Main evidence for dark energy

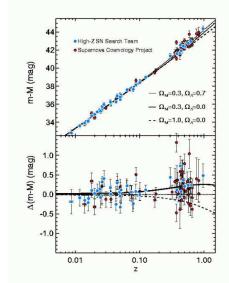
2011 Nobel Prize in physics

# Luminosity distance $d_L$ to supernovae type la

$$F = \frac{L}{4\pi d_L^2}$$

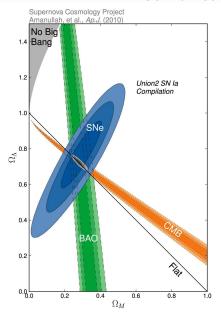
$$d_L(z) = (1+z) \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(z')}$$

$$H^2(z) = H_0^2 \left[ \Omega_m (1+z)^3 + \Omega_{\Lambda} \right]$$



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#### Combined constraints



#### Dark energy:

- Hampers the development of large-scale structure
- Affects the dynamics of galaxy clusters
- Affects the picture of CMB anisotropy and distribution of galaxies



#### Theoretical issues

• Scales (in units  $\hbar = c = 1$ ):

$$\Lambda \simeq (2.8 \text{ Gpc})^{-2} \qquad 
ho_{\Lambda} = \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G} \sim \left(2.5 \times 10^{-3} \, \mathrm{eV}\right)^4$$

Comparable to the neutrino mass squared difference

$$\Delta m_{\rm sol}^2 = \left(8 \times 10^{-3} \, \text{eV}\right)^2$$

Coincidence:

$$\rho_{\Lambda} \sim \rho_{\rm m}$$
 today

Perhaps, dark energy is a dynamical substance (described, e.g., by a scalar field)  $\longrightarrow$  it is evolving

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Physics in the early universe

Inflation

Dark energy

Dark matter

Baryon asymmetry

#### Problem of structure formation

• For baryonic component,

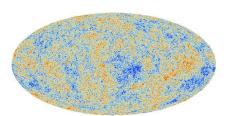
$$\delta \rho_b/\rho_b \sim \delta T/T \sim 10^{-5}$$

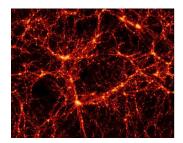
at 
$$z_{\rm rec} \simeq 1100$$

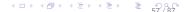
• Law of perturbation growth:

$$\delta \rho/\rho \propto a \propto (1+z)^{-1}$$

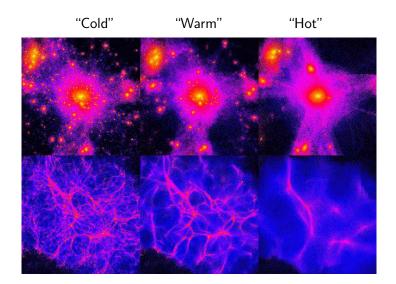
- Today we would have  $\delta \rho_b/\rho_b \sim 10^{-2}$  surely insufficient for formation of observable structure
- Way out: dark matter with  $\delta \rho / \rho \gg \delta \rho_b / \rho_b$  at  $z_{\rm rec} \simeq 1100$





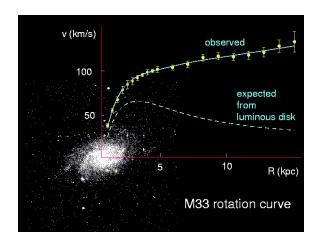


#### Classification of dark matter



#### Evidence of dark matter

#### Galactic rotation curves

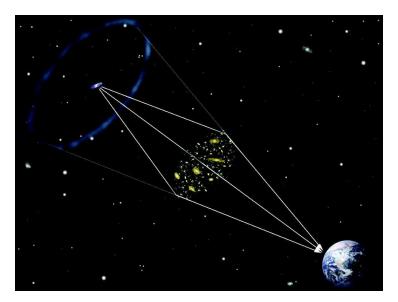


$$\frac{v^2}{r} = \frac{GM(r)}{r^2}$$

$$v^2 = \frac{GM(r)}{r}$$

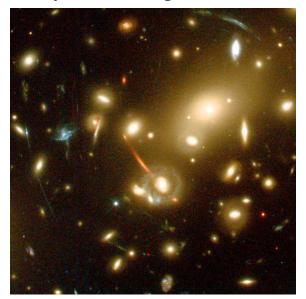
Total mass in a galaxy is 6–7 times its "visible" mass

# **Gravitational Iens**





# Galaxy cluster as a gravitational lens



# Dark-matter halo in a galaxy cluster

by observation of hot intergalactic gas and gravitational lensing



Total mass of a cluster exceeds by order of magnitude its "visible" mass (in gas and stars)

#### Bullet cluster

at a distance of 3.8 million light years



# Active neutrino cannot compose (all of) dark matter

- For each neutrino specie,  $T_{\nu} \simeq 1.95$  K and  $n_{\nu} \simeq 56$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. Thus,  $\sum_{i} m_{\nu_{i}} \simeq 11$  eV is required, which contradicts experiments on  $\beta$ -decay, which give  $m_{\nu_{e}} < 2$  eV and neutrino oscillations  $\sqrt{\Delta m_{\rm atm}^{2}} = 5 \times 10^{-2}$  eV,  $\sqrt{\Delta m_{\rm sol}^{2}} = 8 \times 10^{-3}$  eV
- Phase density is limited for neutrinos being fermions  $\Rightarrow$  for galaxies and clusters,  $m_{\rm DM} \gtrsim 20$  eV and 0.4 keV, respectively
- "Free-streaming": for  $m_{\nu} \simeq 3$  eV, the current velocities  $v_{\nu} \simeq 3500$  km/s  $\Rightarrow$  most of the observed gravitationally bound objects would not be able to form

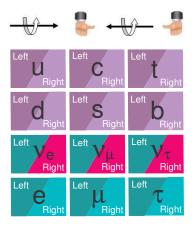
Standard Model requires extension

#### Possible nature of dark matter

- Dark objects made of usual matter, such as planets, comets or faded stars, can comprise only an insignificant part of undetected matter, which, in particular, follows from theory and observations of CMB and BBN.
- Primordial black holes (difficult to form)
- Weakly or superweakly interacting particles that are yet to be discovered (sterile neutrinos, superpartners, ...)
- Scalar fields (remnants of the inflaton, axions, ...)
- Perhaps, the laws of gravity are modified on large scales? This
  is not excluded in principle, but a satisfactory theory of this
  sort is still missing.

# Right-handed (sterile) neutrino

as a natural extension of SM



#### Potentially describes:

- Neutrino masses and oscillations
- Origin of baryon asymmetry
   vMSM model:
   (Asaka & Shaposhnikov, 2005)
- Dark matter

$$L = L_{SM} + \sum_{n} \left( \bar{N}_{n} i \gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu} N_{n} - \frac{M_{n}}{2} \bar{N}_{n}^{C} N_{n} \right) - \sum_{\alpha n} f_{\alpha n} \bar{L}_{\alpha} N_{n} \varphi^{C} + \text{h.c.}$$

#### Detection of dark matter

By signals of decay, e.g.,

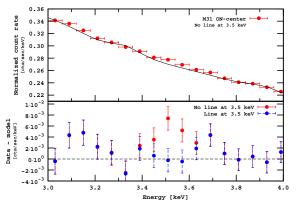
$$N \rightarrow \nu + \gamma$$

The photon in the rest frame of N has definite energy (approximately equal to  $m_N c^2/2$ , which can be manifest as a radiation line from dark-matter halos

- By signals of annihilation see the talk by Torsten Bringmann
- By direct detection in underground laboratories

#### Unidentified emission line at $E \approx 3.5 \text{ keV}$

A. Boyarsky, O. Ruchayskiy, D. lakubovskyi, J. Franse, Phys. Rev. Lett. 113, 251301 (2014)

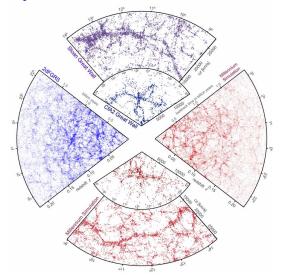


Can be the line of sterile neutrino of mass  $\approx 7 \text{ keV}$ 

Status of the line currently debated (chemical origin, instrumental systematics etc)

E. Bulbul et al, Astrophysical Journal 789, 13 (2014)

# Theory with dark matter and observations

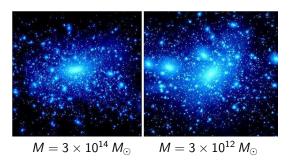


Springel, Frenk & White, Nature 440, 1137-1144 (2006)



# Problem on galactic scales

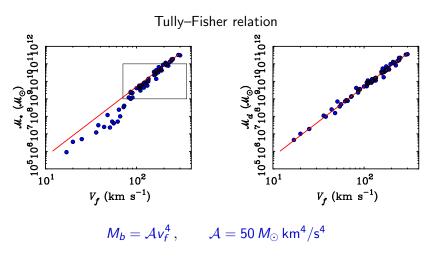
"Missing satellite" problem: they are abundant in computer simulations, and are scarcely visible in the neighborhoods of big galaxies (such as Milky Way or Andromeda)



Kravtsov, Advances in Astronomy 2010, 281913 (2010)

Possible solutions: warm dark matter or peculiarities of galaxy formation

# Regularities on galactic scales



What is the reason of this dependence with power 4? What determines the constant A?

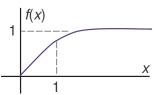


#### MOND

MOdified Newtonian Dynamics (Milgrom, 1983):

$$m\vec{g}\,\mu\left(\frac{g}{a_0}\right) = \vec{F}$$

For instance,  $\mu(x) = x/\sqrt{1+x^2}$ 



The theory describes:

- Galactic rotation curves (asymptotically "flat")
- Tully–Fisher relation:

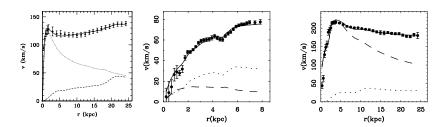
$$\frac{m}{a_0} \left(\frac{v^2}{r}\right)^2 = \frac{GmM}{r^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad v^4 = a_0 GM$$

$$a_0 \simeq 1.2 \times 10^{-8} \, \text{cm/s}^2 \simeq c H_0 / 2\pi$$



#### Galactic rotation curves in MOND

The acceleration parameter  $a_0$  is universal!



However, to account for dark matter in clusters, twice as large value of  $a_0$  is required



## Open issues in the theory of dark matter

- The nature of dark-matter particles and their detection:
  - Scattering off usual particles in laboratory
  - Observation of decay and/or annihilation
  - Discovery of a suitable particle at a collider
- Why does MOND fit observations so well? What determines the scale of the fitting parameter  $a_0 = 1.2 \times 10^{-8}$  cm/s<sup>2</sup>?

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Physics in the early universe

Inflation

Dark energy

Dark matte

Baryon asymmetry

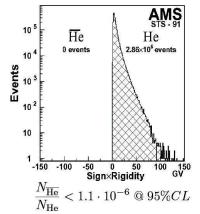
### Origin of baryon asymmetry

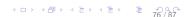
beyond the physical horizon!

- Visible part of universe contains scarce amount of antimatter
- Should one explain this asymmetry?
   Yes, if one assumes inflation

$$\eta = \frac{n_b - n_{\bar{b}}}{n_{\gamma}} \approx 6 \times 10^{-10}$$

- The Sakharov conditions of successful baryogenesis:
  - 1. B not conserved
  - 2. C and CP broken
  - 3. Processes 1 and 2 are not in thermodynamic equilibrium





# Standard Model (SM) of particle physics

• Quantum anomalies break B and L, preserving B - L:

$$\partial_{\mu}j_{B}^{\mu} = \partial_{\mu}j_{L}^{\mu} = \frac{3g^{2}}{16\pi^{2}} \left[ \operatorname{tr} \left( \mathcal{F}^{\mu\nu} \widetilde{\mathcal{F}}_{\mu\nu} \right)_{\mathrm{SU}(2)_{L}} - \left( \mathcal{F}^{\mu\nu} \widetilde{\mathcal{F}}_{\mu\nu} \right)_{\mathrm{U}(1)_{\gamma}} \right]$$

• These processes are effective at  $\mathcal{T} \in \left(10^2, 10^{12}\right)$  GeV resulting in the equilibrium condition

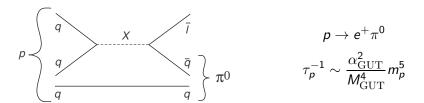
$$B + \frac{28}{51}L = 0$$
 (in the Standard Model)

Together with the condition B - L = 0, this implies B = L = 0

In SM, breaking of thermal equilibrium and non-conservation of B are insufficiently strong for successful baryogenesis

SM requires extension

### Baryogenesis in Great Unification theories



- These processes should violate B and B L
   (otherwise electroweak anomalies will destroy B)
- The bound on the proton lifetime  $au_p \gtrsim 10^{32}$  yr gives  $M_{\rm GUT} \gtrsim 10^{16}$  GeV
- New physics implied at  $E \sim M_{\rm GUT}$
- Is it possible to generate B at lower energies? Yes!

### Leptogenesis

$$L = L_{SM} + \sum_{n} \left( \bar{N}_{n} i \gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu} N_{n} - \frac{M_{n}}{2} \bar{N}_{n}^{C} N_{n} \right) - \sum_{\alpha n} f_{\alpha n} \bar{L}_{\alpha} N_{n} \varphi^{C} + \text{h.c.}$$

First, lepton asymmetry L is generated due to CP-breaking interactions:

$$\Gamma(N \to I\varphi) \neq \Gamma(N \to \bar{I}\bar{\varphi})$$

After that

$$\left. egin{aligned} B-L=-L_i \ B+bL=0 \end{aligned} 
ight. 
igh$$

### Summary

The  $\Lambda$ CDM model + inflation is a fairly successful model of the universe *Principal questions*:

Dark matter

Many candidates How to explain correlation of DM and baryonic matter in galaxies (described by MOND)?

Dark energy

What determines its value? Does it evolve?

Initial conditions

Baryon asymmetry? Inflation? Beginning of the universe?



## THANK YOU!

### Entropy conservation

For adiabatic evolution:

$$sa^3 = const$$

For a closed relativistic system,  $s \propto g_s T^3$ , implying

$$g_s(T) T^3 a^3 = \text{const}$$

If  $g_s$  changes from  $g_{\rm in}$  to  $g_{\rm out}$ , then

$$T_{\mathrm{out}}^3 = \frac{g_{\mathrm{in}} a_{\mathrm{in}}^3}{g_{\mathrm{out}} a_{\mathrm{out}}^3} T_{\mathrm{in}}^3$$

Temperature of relic neutrinos

$$\gamma \,,\;\; e^{\pm} \quad o \quad \gamma \ g_{
m in} = 2 + rac{7}{8} imes 4 \,,\;\;\; g_{
m out} = 2 \ T_{\gamma}^3 = rac{11}{4} rac{a_{
m in}^3}{a_{
m out}^3} \, T_{
m in}^3 \,,\;\;\; T_{
u}^3 = rac{a_{
m in}^3}{a_{
m out}^3} \, T_{
m in}^3 \ T_{
u}^7 = \left(rac{4}{11}
ight)^{1/3} T_{\gamma} = 1.95 \; {
m K}$$

### Cosmography

requires standard candles and rods

• Luminosity distance  $d_L(z)$ 

$$F = rac{L}{4\pi d_L^2} \,, \qquad d_L(z) = (1+z) a_0 r_0 \sin[h] \, \left(rac{1}{a_0 r_0} \int_0^z rac{dz'}{H(z')}
ight)$$

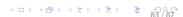
• Angular-diameter distance  $d_A(z)$ 

$$\vartheta = \frac{D}{d_A}, \quad d_A(z) = \frac{d_L(z)}{(1+z)^2}$$

Can have *maximum* at some *z*!

• Source counts [n(z)] is the source number density

$$\Delta N(z) = \frac{d_A^2(z)n(z)}{(1+z)H(z)}\Delta\Omega\Delta z$$



### Example: Einstein-De Sitter model

Spatially flat universe filled with matter

$$H^{2}(z) = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho(z) = H_{0}^{2}(1+z)^{3}$$

$$d_L(z) = \frac{(1+z)}{H_0} \int_0^z \frac{dx}{(1+x)^{3/2}} = \frac{2}{H_0} \left( 1 + z - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+z}} \right)$$
$$d_A(z) = \frac{d_L(z)}{(1+z)^2} = \frac{2}{H_0} \left( \frac{1}{1+z} - \frac{1}{(1+z)^{3/2}} \right)$$

$$d_A(z)$$
 has maximum at  $z = 5/4$ 

Beyond this redshift, the *farther* is the object, the *larger* it looks on the sky

Exercise: Perform the same analysis for a more realistic ΛCDM model (to be described below)

### Gravidynamics of nonrelativistic fluid

- Continuity equation
- Euler equation
- Poisson equation
- Equation of state
   (S is entropy per baryon)
- Adiabaticity condition:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla_{\mathbf{r}}(\rho \mathbf{u}) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}}{\partial t} + (\boldsymbol{u} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{r}}) \boldsymbol{u} + \frac{\nabla_{\boldsymbol{r}} \rho}{\rho} + \nabla_{\boldsymbol{r}} \phi = 0$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{r}}^2 \phi = 4\pi G \rho$$

$$p = p(\rho, S)$$

$$S = const$$



# Homogeneous isotropic solution and its perturbation

$$\rho = \varrho(t), \quad \mathbf{u} = H(t)\mathbf{r}$$

Continuity equation:

$$\dot{\varrho} + 3H\varrho = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \rho \propto a^{-3}$$

Euler and Poisson equations → Friedmann equation:

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = \dot{H} + H^2 = -\frac{4\pi G}{3}\varrho$$

Introduce small perturbations  $\delta \rho$ ,  $\delta u$ 

For a dimensionless quantity  $\delta \equiv \delta \rho/\rho$ , one obtains the linear equation (in comoving coordinates x: r = ax)

$$\ddot{\delta} + 2H\dot{\delta} - \frac{c_s^2}{a^2}\nabla^2\delta - 4\pi G\varrho\delta = 0, \qquad c_s^2 = \frac{\partial p}{\partial \rho}$$

### Gravitational instability

In Fourier representation:

$$\ddot{\delta}_{\mathbf{k}} + 2H\dot{\delta}_{\mathbf{k}} + \left(c_s^2 \frac{k^2}{a^2} - 4\pi G \varrho\right) \delta_{\mathbf{k}} = 0$$

Perturbations with wavelengths smaller than the Jeans length,

$$\lambda < \lambda_J = \frac{2\pi a}{k_J} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi c_s^2}{G\varrho}},$$

oscillate, while those with  $\lambda > \lambda_J$  grow according to the law

$$\delta \propto$$
 a

Large-scale structure in the universe forms from the initial perturbations  $\delta\ll 1$  as they grow to become  $\delta\sim 1$  and then  $\ll 1$ 

Initial power spectrum  $P(k) = \langle |\delta_{\mathbf{k}}|^2 \rangle$  is part of the standard cosmology