

Age of the Universe

$$\dot{R} = \frac{dR}{dt}$$

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = f(R)$$

$$\int \frac{dR}{f(R)} = \int dt$$

Age can be obtained by integrating Friedmann's eqⁿ

Energy density scale as:

$$\frac{\rho_0}{\rho_0} = \left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right)^{-3} \text{ for Matter dominated universe} \quad (3-1)$$

$$\frac{\rho}{\rho_0} = \left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right)^{-4} \text{ if Radiation } \rightarrow \text{ minre} \quad (3-2)$$

The Friedmann eqⁿ becomes:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R_0}\right)^2 + \frac{k}{R_0^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_0 \frac{R_0}{R} \text{ for MD} \quad (3-3)$$

$$b \quad \left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R_0}\right)^2 + \frac{k}{R_0^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_0 \left(\frac{R_0}{R}\right)^2 \text{ for RD} \quad (3-4)$$

Note that eqⁿ (3.3) & d(3.4) are obtained by taking the Friedmann eqⁿ $\frac{(\dot{R})^2}{R^2} + \frac{k}{R^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho$

using (3.1), (3.2) & by multiplying $\left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right)$ on both sides

Eqn (3.3) & (3.4) can be integrated in general with some multiplication but consider first the simplest case $R=0$ this corresponds to the observational & theoretical favoured case of a flat universe.

For the flat ($\kappa=0$) universe

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R_0}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 \frac{R_0}{R}$$

$$\dot{R} = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 R_0^3 / R}$$

Thus $\frac{dR}{dt} = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 R_0^3} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{R}}$

$$\frac{R}{\sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 R_0^3}} dR = dt$$

$$t_0 \int_0^{R_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 R^3}} dR = t_0 = \int_0^{R_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 R_0^3}} R^{3/2} dR$$

$$t_0 = \int_0^{R_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 R_0^3}} \frac{R^{3/2}}{3/2} dR$$

$$t_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 R_0^3}} \frac{2}{3} (R_0^{3/2} - 0)$$

$$t_0 = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0}} \frac{1}{R_0^{3/2}} R_0^{3/2} \quad 3 \cdot S$$

$$f_0 = \frac{2}{3} H_0^{-1} \text{ for matter-dominant.}$$

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Recall that the Friedmann eqn. for this case is :

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 = H^2 = \frac{8\pi G P}{3}$$

Thus at the present time $t = t_0$ this implies

$$\boxed{H_0^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0} \quad (3.6)$$

Hubble constant

$$(3.6) \Rightarrow H_0 = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0}$$

using this in eqn (3.5) we get :

$$\boxed{t_0 = \frac{2}{3} H_0^{-1}}$$

Present time

for matter dominated universe.

For the flat ($k=0$) radiation dominated universe from eqn 7 (3.4) setting $R = 0$ we get

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R_0}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 \left(\frac{R_0}{R}\right)^2$$

$$\frac{\dot{R}}{R_0} = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0} \left(\frac{R_0}{R}\right)$$

$$\text{Thus } \frac{dR}{dt} = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0} \frac{R_0^2}{R}$$

$$\frac{R dR}{R_0^2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{8\pi G P_0}{3}}} = dt$$

$$t_0 = \frac{1}{2} H_0^{-1} \text{ for RD universe}$$

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$$t_0 = \int_0^R dt = \int_0^{R_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{8\pi G P_0}{3} + \frac{1}{R^2}}} dR$$

$$t_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{8\pi G P_0}{3}}} \frac{1}{R_0} \left(R_0^2 - 0 \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\cancel{t_0 = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{R_0} \frac{dR}{\sqrt{\frac{8\pi G P_0}{3}}}} \quad \boxed{t_0 = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\frac{8\pi G P_0}{3}}}} \quad (3.2)$$

Again using the Friedmann eqn

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 = H^2 = \frac{8\pi G P}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow H_0 = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G P_0}{3}}$$

$$\boxed{t_0 = \frac{1}{2} H_0^{-1}} \quad \cancel{(3.9)} \quad (3.9)$$

for RD universe

~~For~~ For Non-flat universe ($k \neq 0$) MD universe we can start from the Friedmann eqn:

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R_0}\right)^2 + \frac{k}{R_0^2} = \frac{8\pi G P_0}{3} \frac{R_0}{R}$$

We use the fact that $\frac{R}{R_0} \equiv H_0^2 (R_0 - 1)$

$$\frac{R_0}{R} = (1+2) \text{ to get :}$$

$$\left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right)^2 + n_0^2 (\Sigma - 1) = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_0 (1+2)$$

$$\text{Factor } \frac{\rho_0}{3n_0^2 / 8\pi G} = \Sigma_0$$

$$\frac{8\pi G}{3} (\rho_0) = \Sigma_0 n_0^2$$

Thus $\left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right)^2 + n_0^2 (\Sigma_0 - 1) = \frac{\Sigma_0}{\rho_0} n_0^2 (1+2)$

$$\left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right)^2 = n_0^2 [\Sigma_0 (1+2) + 1 - \Sigma_0]$$

$$\frac{R}{R_0} = n_0 [\Sigma_0 (1+2) + 1 - \Sigma_0]^{1/2}$$

Thus

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = n_0 R_0 [1 - \Sigma_0 + \Sigma_0 (1+2)]^{1/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dR}{n_0 R_0 [1 - \Sigma_0 + \Sigma_0 (1+2)]^{1/2}} = dt$$

$$t = \int_0^T dt = n_0^{-1} \int_0^T \frac{dR}{R_0 [1 - \Sigma_0 + \Sigma_0 (1+2)]^{1/2}}$$

The integral can be evaluated using the change of variables $x^{-1} = (1+2)$ to get the result.

Thus

$$t = H_0^{-1} \frac{\Omega_0}{2(\Omega_0 - 1)^{3/2}} \times \left[\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\Omega_0^2 - \Omega_0 + 2}{\Omega_0^2 + \Omega_0} \right) - \frac{2(\Omega_0 - 1)^{1/2} (\Omega_0^2 + 1)^{1/2}}{\Omega_0 (1+2)} \right]$$

for $\Omega_0 > 1$

and

$$t = H_0^{-1} \frac{\Omega}{2(1 - \Omega_0)^{3/2}} \times \left[\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\Omega_0^2 - \Omega_0 + 2}{\Omega_0^2 + \Omega_0} \right) + \frac{2(1 - \Omega_0)(\Omega_0^2 + 1)^{1/2}}{\Omega_0 (1+2)} \right]$$

for $\Omega_0 < 1$

The age of the universe is given by the above expression by setting $\Omega = 0$ for to

Observational numbers

for the flat matter dominated universe the age of the universe is related the hubble constant H_0 by:

$$\Omega_0 = \frac{2}{3} H_0^{-1}$$

Recall that $H_0 = 100 h \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ mps}^{-1}$
with $h \approx 0.75$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus } H_0^{-1} &= h^{-1} (100 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mps}^{-1})^{-1} \\ &= h^{-1} (9.78) \times 10^9 \text{ years} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{or } t_0 = \frac{2}{3} \times 9.78 \times 10^9 \times h^{-1} \text{ years.}$$

$$t_0 = 8.67 \times 10^9 \text{ years}$$

$$\text{For } h_0 = 0.75 \times \frac{3}{4} \quad h_0^{-1} = 1.33$$

$$t_0 = \frac{2}{3} \times 1.33 \times 9.78 \times 10^9 \text{ years}$$

$$\Rightarrow t_0 = 8.67 \times 10^9 \text{ years}$$

Problem : observed age is estimated to be 14×10^9 years

by looking at
different stars & other
objects of universe.

Now it turns out that there must be something
else & other than radiation & matter for ~~correct~~ age of
universe. correct

① With Vacuum Energy (Dark Energy)

Let us consider the case of the flat model ($k=0, R=1$)
universe but now allow both matter & vacuum

energy. In this case $\Omega_{\text{total}} = 1$ ~~is~~ both
 Ω_m & Ω_v are significant

Thus ~~$\Omega_m + \Omega_v = 1$~~ for the case of
intuit. In general, Friedmann eqn is :

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 + \frac{k}{R^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho$$

$$\text{For } k=0 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho$$

$$\text{where } \rho = \rho_v + \rho_m = \rho_{v0} + \frac{\rho_{m0}}{R^3}$$

$$R^2 = R^2 \left(\frac{8\pi G}{3} \right) \left(\rho_{v_0} + \frac{\rho_m}{R^3} \right)$$

$$R = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} R} \left[\rho_{v_0} + \frac{\rho_m}{R^3} \right]^{1/2}$$

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{v_0}} R \left[\left(1 + \frac{\rho_m}{\rho_{v_0}} \right)^{-1/2} \right]$$

$\therefore \rho_v = \rho_{v_0}$

~~$\frac{3H^2}{8\pi G}$~~

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = H_0 \Omega_{v_0}^{1/2} R \left[\left(1 + \frac{\rho_m}{\Omega_{v_0}} \right)^{-1/2} \right]$$

$$\therefore \frac{\rho_{v_0}}{3H^2/8\pi G} = \rho_{v_0} \Rightarrow \frac{8\pi G}{3H^2} \rho_{v_0} = \rho_{v_0} \Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G \rho_{v_0}}{3}} \\ = \Omega_{v_0}^{1/2} H^{1/2}$$

$$t_0 = \int dA = H_0^{-1} \Omega_{v_0}^{-1/2} + \int \frac{1}{R} \frac{dR}{\left[1 + \frac{1}{R^3} \frac{\rho_m}{\Omega_{v_0}} \right]^{1/2}}$$

Recall that $\Omega_m + \Omega_v = 1$ & so ~~cancel~~ can eliminate Ω_m in favor of Ω_v :

$$\Omega_m = 1 - \Omega_v$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Integral} = \frac{1}{3} \ln \left(\frac{\Omega_{v_0}^{1/2} + 1}{\Omega_{v_0}^{1/2} - 1} \right)$$

$$\text{where Integral} = \int \frac{1}{R} \frac{dR}{\left[1 + \frac{1}{R^3} \frac{\Omega_m}{\Omega_{v_0}} \right]^{1/2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Thus, } t_0 &= H_0^{-1} \Omega_v^{-1/2} \frac{1}{3} \ln \left(\frac{\gamma_{\Omega_v}^{\gamma_2} + 1}{\gamma_{\Omega_v}^{\gamma_2} - 1} \right) \\
 &= H_0^{-1} \Omega_v^{-1/2} \frac{1}{3} \ln \left(\frac{1 + \Omega_v^{\gamma_2}}{1 - \Omega_v^{\gamma_2}} \right) \\
 &= H_0^{-1} \Omega_v^{-1/2} \frac{1}{3} \ln \left(\frac{(1 + \Omega_v^{\gamma_2})^2}{(1 - \Omega_v^{\gamma_2})} \right) \\
 &\stackrel{10}{=} H_0^{-1} \Omega_v^{-1/2} \frac{1}{3} \ln \left[\left[\frac{(1 + \Omega_v^{\gamma_2})}{(1 - \Omega_v^{\gamma_2})^{\gamma_2}} \right]^2 \right] \\
 &\stackrel{15}{=} t_0 = H_0^{-1} \Omega_v^{-1/2} \left(\frac{2}{3} \right) \ln \left[\frac{1 + \Omega_v^{\gamma_2}}{(1 - \Omega_v^{\gamma_2})^{\gamma_2}} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Note as $\Omega_v \rightarrow 1$ to ∞

Thus according to cosmological model accommodating a large age is not a problem when vacuum energy is present.

Recall that:

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

$$H_0^{-1} = h^{-1} \times 978 \times 10^9 \text{ years.}$$

$$\stackrel{25}{=} H_0^{-1} = 13.6 \times 10^9 \text{ years.}$$

$$t_0 = \frac{2}{3} \times 13.6 \times 10^9 \text{ years} \times \Omega_v^{-1/2} \ln \left[\frac{1 + \Omega_v^{\gamma_2}}{(1 - \Omega_v^{\gamma_2})^{\gamma_2}} \right]$$

From observation W.K.T.

$$t_0 = 13.6 \times 10^9 \text{ years.}$$

$$\Omega_V \approx 0.75$$

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Thus we get,

$$13.6 \times 10^9 \text{ years} = 9 \times 10^5 \text{ years} \times \Omega^{-1/2}$$

$$\ln \left[\frac{[1 + \Omega^{1/2}]}{[1 - \Omega^{1/2}]} \right] \quad (3.11)$$

(can solve eqⁿ (3.11) numerically to get

$$\Omega_V \approx 0.75$$

This about 3/4 of the energy density of the universe is in the form of vacuum energy or dark energy recall that the dark energy has the eqⁿ of state which is of the form $P = w\rho$ with $w < 0$

Other implications of Friedmann eqⁿ scale factor as function of time.

Consider the observationally & theoretically supported case of the flat $K=0$ $\Omega=1$ universe In this case the Friedmann eqⁿ's is

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R} \right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho \quad (3.12)$$

Recall also that we had the first law of thermodynamics

$$d(\rho R^3) = -P d(R^3)$$

together with the eqⁿ of the state $P = w\rho$ (3.13)

which implies

$$P \propto R^{-3(1+\omega)} \quad (3.14)$$

$$\frac{P}{P_0} = \left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right)^{-3(1+\omega)} \quad (3.15)$$

Sub further (3.15) in (3.12) \Rightarrow

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G P_0}{3} \left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right)^{-3(1+\omega)}$$

$$\dot{R}^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 \frac{R^{-3-3\omega+2}}{R_0^{-3(1+\omega)}}$$

Choosing $R_0 = 1 \Rightarrow$

$$\dot{R}^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 R^{-1-3\omega}$$

$$\dot{R} = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0} R^{-\frac{1}{2}(1+3\omega)}$$

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0} R^{-\frac{1}{2}(1+3\omega)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int \frac{dR}{R^{-\frac{1}{2}(1+3\omega)}} = \int \frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 dt$$

$$\Rightarrow \int R^{\frac{1}{2}(1+3\omega)} dR = \int \frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 dt$$

$$\Rightarrow R^{\frac{1}{2}(1+\omega)} = \frac{3}{2}(1+\omega) \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0} t$$

$$\left[R^{\frac{1}{2}(1+\omega)} \right]^{\frac{2}{3(1+\omega)}} = \left(\frac{4(1+\omega)\pi G P_0}{3} \right)^{\frac{2}{3(1+\omega)}} \cdot t^{\frac{2}{3(1+\omega)}}$$

$$R = k + \frac{2}{3(1+\omega)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_{RD} &= k_1 + \frac{v_1}{1+\omega} \\ R_{Matter} &= k_2 + \frac{v_2}{1+\omega} \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{R = k + \frac{2}{3(1+\omega)}} \quad (3.16)$$

For radiation dominated universe $\omega = \frac{1}{3}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2}{3(1+\omega)} = \frac{2}{3\left(1+\frac{1}{3}\right)} = \frac{2}{3+1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\boxed{R = k_1 t^{\frac{1}{2}}} + \text{or R.D. (3.17)}$$

for $\omega = 0$ (MD Universe)

$$\frac{2}{3(1+\omega)} = \frac{2}{3}$$

The $\boxed{R = k_2 t^{2/3}}$ for MD (3.18)

For $\omega = -1$ vacuum dominated

$$\boxed{\frac{2}{3(1-1)} \rightarrow \infty}$$

Expansion is actually faster than any polynomial
~~which is~~ (faster than any t^n with fixed n)

Consider the Friedman eqn for the vacuum ~~energy~~ energy
carefully.

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho \quad (3.19)$$

For ~~vacuum~~ vacuum energy ($\omega = -1$) we know that



$$R(t) = \exp(H_0 t)$$

$$P = P_0 = \text{constant} (3.20)$$

Putting (3.20) in (3.19)

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 \quad (3.21)$$

Thus we get

$$H^2 = \left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} P_0 = \text{const.} = H_0^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\dot{R}}{R} = H_0$$

$$\frac{1}{R} \cdot \frac{dR}{dt} = H_0 \Rightarrow \int \frac{1}{R} dt = H_0 \int dt$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln R = H_0 t \Rightarrow R(t) = e^{H_0 t} \quad (3.23)$$

Summary

For RD universe $w = 1/3 \quad R = k_1 t^{1/2}$

For MD $\Rightarrow w = 0 \quad R = k_2 t^{2/3}$

For Dark energy $w = -1 \quad R(t) = \exp(H_0 t)$

Thermodynamics

Quantities of physical interest that are thermodynamic variables.

$n \rightarrow$ number density of particle, $\vec{p} =$ momentum
 $P \rightarrow$ Energy

$P \rightarrow$ Pressure due to a gas of particles

These can be given in terms of the phase space distribution (sometimes called occupancy) function $f(\vec{p})$

$$n = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int f(\vec{p}) d^3 p \quad (S.1)$$

$$P = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int E(\vec{p}) + (\vec{p})^2 d^3 p \quad (S.2)$$

$$P = \frac{2g}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{1}{3} \vec{p}^2 + E(\vec{p}) d^3 p \quad (S.3)$$

where $g = \#$ of internal degrees of freedom

(e.g. $g=2$ for spin $1/2$ particle such as e^\pm)

$$\text{1 } \boxed{\vec{p}} \quad E^2 = |\vec{p}|^2 + m^2 \quad (S.4)$$

$\downarrow \cdot E \cdot$ E is the Energy

n, P, P
depends on

$\boxed{f} \rightarrow$ distribution function

$f \rightarrow$ defined and fixed in thermal equilibrium
depends on spin of particle

\leftarrow for thermal equilibrium.

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\rightarrow Clever and fixed in thermal equilibrium depends on spin of particle

$$S = 0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, 1, \frac{5}{2}$$

$S = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2}, \dots$ Half integer

Anti-symmetric under exchange of particles

Fermions obey Fermi - Dirac statistics

Integer $\rightarrow S = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

Symmetric Under exchange of particles

$$\Psi \rightarrow \Psi$$

Bosons obey Bose - Einstein statistics

Particle with Integer spin ($S = 0, 1, 2, \dots$) are Bosons and their phase space distribution is given by the Bose - Einstein distribution:

$$f(\vec{p}) = \frac{1}{\exp[(E - M)/T] + 1} \quad (5.5)$$

Particles with half integer spin ($S = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \dots$) are fermions and their phase space distribution is

$$f(\vec{p}) = \frac{1}{\exp[E - \mu/T] + 1} \quad (5.6)$$

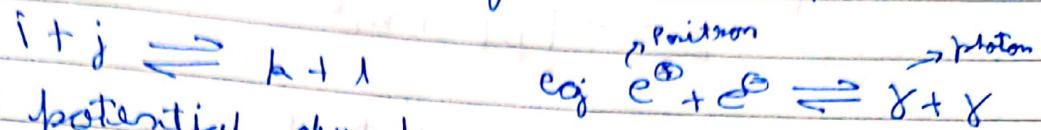
μ is chemical potential & describe chemical equilibrium.
 T is temp.

here units are such that in $e^{-\Delta E/k_B T}$ k_B which is Boltzmann constant equal 1.

$$f(\vec{p}) = \frac{1}{\exp[(E-\mu)/T] + 1}$$

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μ : For example for the species "i" interacting with species "j, k & l" by the reaction:



The chemical potential obey the relationship

$$\mu_i + \mu_j = \mu_k + \mu_l$$

Thus, μ ~~gives~~ carries the info about chemical equilibrium.

Frequently, we combine the description of Fermi Dirac species & Bose Einstein species & write expression as:

$$f(\vec{p}) = \frac{1}{\exp[(E-\mu)/T] + 1} \quad (S-7)$$

+ : Fermi Dirac species.

- : Bose Einstein.

Taking the distribution f^+ . given by (S-7) & inserting into general expression for n , P & P given by (S-1), (S-2) & (S-3) respectively, we get

$$n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_m^{\infty} \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{1/2}}{\exp[(E-\mu)/T] + 1} E dE$$

$$P = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_m^{\infty} \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{1/2}}{\exp[(E-\mu)/T] + 1} E^2 dE$$

$$\& P = \frac{g}{6\pi^2} \int_m^{\infty} \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{3/2}}{\exp[(E-\mu)/T] + 1} dE$$

where we have changed the variable of integration from p to E & used the relationship (5.4) i.e.

$$E^2 = |\vec{p}|^2 + m^2$$

consider n : start with

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

$$d^3 p = dp_1 dp_2 dp_3$$

in cartesian coordinates

$$= \frac{g}{8\pi^3} \int f(\vec{p}) 4\pi p^2 dp$$

$$d^3 p = p^2 dp dsin\theta d\phi$$

in spherical

$$= \frac{g}{8\pi^2} \int f(\vec{p}) p^2 dp$$

$$g^2 dr \int dsin\theta \int d\phi E^2 = |\vec{p}|^2 + m^2, p = 6 \Rightarrow E = m$$

$$2 E dE = 2 p dp \Rightarrow p^2 dp = p E dE = (E^2 - m^2)^{1/2} E dE$$

$$n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_m^\infty f(\vec{p}) (E^2 - m^2)^{1/2} E dE$$

$$\Rightarrow n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_m^\infty \frac{1}{\exp[(E - \mu)/T] + 1} (E^2 - m^2)^{1/2} E dE$$

(5.8)

ρ : start with

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

High & low temp limits of significance.

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$$= \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_m^\infty p + (\vec{p}) E^2 dE$$

$$\Rightarrow P = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_m^\infty \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{1/2} E^2 dE}{\exp[(E - \mu)/T] + 1} \quad (S.9)$$

P : start with

$$P = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int_{3E} |(\vec{p})|^2 + (\vec{p}) d^3 p$$

$$= \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \int_m^\infty |(\vec{p})|^2 f(\vec{p}) p E dE$$

$$= \frac{g}{6\pi^2} \int_m^\infty |(\vec{p})|^3 + (\vec{p}) dE$$

$$P_B = \frac{g}{6\pi^2} \int_m^\infty \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{3/2}}{\exp[(E - \mu)/T] + 1} dE \quad (S.10)$$

~~n~~ n (T, μ, m) : number density

p (T, μ, m) : Energy ↗

p (T, μ, m) : Pressure ↗

→ High temp limit

→ Low temp limit

$$P = \sum_i p_i \rightarrow \text{sum over all the particles of standard model.}$$

P_{Chew}

$$\langle E_e \rangle \approx n k_B T$$

$$\langle p \rangle \approx k_B T \quad E^2 = p^2 + m^2$$

$$(k_B) T \gg m(c^2)$$

$$k_B = 1 \quad c = 1$$

~~so~~ \Rightarrow High temp \rightarrow relativistic limit $T \gg m$

Now in the early universe everything can be considered massless as heaviest particle was $m(c)^2 \sim 100 \text{ GeV}$ ($c=1$)

and $T \gg 100 \text{ GeV}$.

For low temp units $T \sim 1 \text{ eV}$.

① For the high temperature limit

(Applicable to the early universe)

$$T \gg m \quad \Delta T \gg \Lambda$$

$$\rho = g \int_m^\infty \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{\gamma_L} E^2 dE}{e^{\exp(E/T)} + 1}$$

First let us use $m \ll T \Rightarrow e^{-m/T} = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \rho = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_m^\infty \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{\gamma_L} E^2 dE}{e^{\exp(E/T)} + 1}$$

Now we use ~~$E^2 - m^2 \approx E^2$~~

$$R^2 := E^2 - m^2 \Rightarrow 2kdk = 2EdE$$

n & P for high temp limit

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Thus, $P = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{k(k^2 + m^2)^{1/2} k dk}{\exp\left[\frac{(k^2 + m^2)^{1/2}}{T}\right] + 1}$

Now we $m \ll T$ & set $k' = k/T \Rightarrow dk = T dk'$

$$\Rightarrow P = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{(k'T)^3 T dk'}{\exp[k'[k']] + 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow P = \frac{g T^4}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{k'^3 dk'}{\exp[k'] + 1} \quad (\text{S.11})$$

pure number

For Boson - sign $\Rightarrow \boxed{P = \frac{\pi^2 g T^4}{30}} \quad (\text{S.12})$

For Fermi + sign $\Rightarrow \boxed{P = \left(\frac{7}{8}\right) \left(\frac{\pi^2}{30}\right) g T^4} \quad (\text{S.13})$

Now taking out n & P for high temp limit

$$n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_m^\infty \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{1/2} E dE}{\exp[(E - \mu)/T] + 1}$$

$T \gg \mu$

$$n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_m^\infty \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{1/2} E dE}{\exp[E/T] + 1}$$

$$E^2 = k^2 + m^2 \quad \Delta 2E dE = 2k dk \quad \& \quad m \ll T \Rightarrow$$

$$n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{R^2 dR}{\exp[R/T] + 1}$$

$$\text{Let } k' = k/T \Rightarrow dk' = T dk$$

$$\Rightarrow n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty T^3 \frac{k'^2 dk'}{\exp[k'/T] + 1}$$

$$n = g T^3 \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{k'^2 dk'}{\exp[k'/T] + 1}$$

Thus for Bosons

$$n = g T^3 \left[\frac{h(3)}{\pi^2} \right] \quad (\text{S.14})$$

$$\text{where } h(3) = 1.262$$

For Fermions (+ve sign in above.)

$$n = g T^3 \left[\frac{3}{4} \right] \left[\frac{h(3)}{\pi^2} \right] \quad (\text{S.15})$$

For pressure P:

$$P = \frac{g}{6\pi^2} \int_m^\infty \frac{(E^2 - m^2)^{3/2}}{\exp[(E-m)/T] + 1} dE$$

Again using ($k \ll T$) $kR^2 + m^2 = E^2$

& $k dk = E dE$, we get

$$P = \frac{g}{6\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{k^3 dk}{\exp[k/T] + 1}$$

$$\text{Let } k' = \frac{k}{T} \quad \& \quad dk = T dk'$$

$$P = \frac{1}{3} P_{\text{stated on}} \text{ for radiation}$$

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$$P = \frac{g}{6\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{T^4 k'^3 dk'}{\exp[k'] + 1}$$

$$\text{Thus, } P = \frac{g T^4}{6\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{k' dk'}{\exp[k'] + 1} \quad (S.11)$$

Comparing (S.16) with the expression (S.11) for the energy density P we note

$$\boxed{P = \frac{1}{3} P} \quad (S.17)$$

Note that (S.17) is the eqn of state for radiation or relativistic matter which we have now derived from fundamental thermodynamics.

$$m < T \quad E^2 = p^2 + m^2 \quad E \gg m \rightarrow \text{radiation}$$

① Now consider the non-relativistic case the number density is given by

$$n = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int f(\vec{p}) 4\pi p^2 dp$$

$$= \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int f(\vec{p}) p^2 dp$$

$$f(\vec{p}) \neq f(p) = \frac{1}{\exp[\frac{E - M}{T}] + 1}$$

$$E = (p^2 + m^2)^{1/2} = m \left(1 + \frac{p^2}{m^2}\right)^{1/2} = m \left(1 + \frac{p^2}{2m^2}\right)$$

binomial

$$f = \frac{1}{\exp\left[\frac{E-M}{T}\right] + 1} = \exp\left[\frac{m}{T}\left(1 + \frac{p^2}{2m^2}\right) - \frac{M}{T}\right] + 1$$

$$\frac{M}{T} \gg 1 \Rightarrow \exp\left[\frac{m}{T}\left(1 + \frac{p^2}{2m^2}\right) - \frac{M}{T}\right] \gg 1$$

$$f = \frac{1}{\exp\left[\frac{m}{T}\left(1 + \frac{p^2}{2m^2} - \frac{M}{T}\right)\right]} = \exp\left[-\frac{(m-M)}{T}\right] \exp\left[\frac{-p^2}{2mT}\right]$$

putting this in n :

$$n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \exp\left[-\frac{(m-M)}{T}\right] \cdot \int (2\pi b)^{-1} \frac{p^2}{2mT} p^2 dp$$

$$\text{Let } p' = \frac{p^2}{2mT} \Rightarrow p = p' (2mT)^{1/2}$$

$$\text{and } dp = 2mT^{1/2} dp'$$

$$\Rightarrow n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \exp\left[-\frac{(m-M)}{T}\right] (2mT)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \exp(-p'^2) p'^2 dp'$$

$$\text{pure number} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{4}$$

$$n = g \left(\frac{mT}{2\pi}\right)^{3/2} \exp\left[-\frac{(m-M)}{T}\right] \quad \text{S. 37}$$

similarly for the Pressure p is $n \gg T$ Hint

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

$$P = nT, P = mn$$

$$P = g \exp \left[-\frac{(m-n)}{T} \right] \left(\frac{mT}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} T \quad (5.25)$$

Comparing (5.25) & (5.24)

[expression for n] we get:

$$P = nT \quad (5.26)$$

where P is pressure, n is number density & T is temperature

Finally, consider P :

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

Again using (f) in P

$$P = g \left(\frac{mT}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} \exp \left[-\frac{(m-n)}{T} \right] \cdot m \quad (5.27)$$

from 5.27 & 5.24 we get

$$P = mn \quad (5.28)$$

Further we note from 5.26 that $P = nT$

& (5.28) tells us $P = mn$

dividing (5.26) by (5.28) \Rightarrow

$$P \ll P$$

in non-relativistic

$$\frac{P}{P} = \frac{nT}{mn} = \frac{T}{m}$$

$$\text{Thus, } P = \left(\frac{T}{m}\right) P \quad (5.29)$$

In the non-relativistic limit $\frac{T}{m} \ll 1$

$$P \ll P \quad (5.30)$$

or $P = \omega p$ with $\omega \rightarrow 0$ or $\omega = 0$
as off states for non-relativistic matter.

Things to note & remember

② In the relativistic limit

$$T \gg m \quad \text{and}$$

$$P \approx T^4$$

$$n \approx T^3$$

$$P \approx T^4$$

In the non-relativistic limit

$$m \gg T \quad \text{and}$$

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

$$P = mn$$

$$P = nT \ll P$$

In non-relativistic limit all quantities are exponentially suppressed by the factor $\left[\frac{1}{(m-1)} \right]$

factor & small compared to the similar quantities in a relativistic case.

In general the total energy density and pressure for all species in equilibrium can be expressed in terms of the photon temperature T as:

$$P = T^4 \sum_{i=\text{all species}} \frac{(T_i)^4}{T} g_i \int_{x_i}^{\infty} \frac{(u^2 - x_i^2)^{1/2}}{2\pi} du \exp(-u - y_i) + 1$$

$$P = T^4 \sum_{i=\text{all species}} \frac{(T_i)^4}{T} g_i \frac{1}{6\pi^2} \int_{x_i}^{\infty} (u^2 - x_i^2)^{3/2} du \exp(-u - y_i) + 1 \quad (5.31)$$

$$\text{where } x_i = \frac{m_i}{T} \quad \text{and} \quad y_i = \frac{u_i}{T} \quad (5.32)$$

By introducing the quantity T_i we allow that species may have a thermal distribution but with a temperature different than that of photon.

One thing to note is that P & P of non-relativistic species (with $m \gg T$) are exponentially smaller than that of relativistic species (with $m \ll T$).

This is a very good approximation to keep only the relativistic species in the sum for P & P given in ~~(5.31)~~ & ~~(5.32)~~. Thus,

$$P = \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_* T^4 \quad (S.33)$$

(*) $P = \frac{P}{3} = \frac{\pi^2}{90} g_* T^4 \quad (S.34)$

where g_* counts the total number of effectively massless ($m \ll T$) degrees of freedom.

Function g_* can be expressed as

$$g_* = \sum_{i=\text{Bosons}} g_i \left(\frac{T_i}{T} \right)^4 + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{i=\text{Fermi}} g_i \left(\frac{T_i}{T} \right)^4$$

The factor $\frac{7}{8}$ is due to the different distribution functions (Fermi-Dirac vs Boltzmann) for Fermions & Bosons

g_* of course depends on T .

In RD era we had derived the one is given by

$$t = \frac{1}{2} H^{-1} \quad (S.38)$$

Computed n, P, P from first principles now apply it in the context of the universe as a whole

Examine connections b/w $H, P, R(t), H(t)$.

$$H = k g^{\frac{1}{2}} \pi r^2$$

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During the early radiation dominated era

$$\rho \approx \rho_R = \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_* T^4 \quad (S.36)$$

Thus using eqn (S.36) in (S.39) \Rightarrow

$$\text{and } \rho_R = \frac{\rho_R}{3} \text{ that is } \omega = \frac{1}{3} \quad (S.37)$$

$$R(t) \propto t^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (S.38)$$

$$\rho \propto R^{-3(1+\omega)} = R^{-4}$$

we can now get t in terms of ρ .

In RD era, we find had derived the age is given by

$$t = \frac{1}{H} \quad (S.38)$$

The Friedmann eqn for flat ($K=0$) universe is.

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G \rho}{3} \quad (S.39)$$

$$k\rho = \rho_R = \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_* T^4$$

Thus using eqn (S.36) in (S.39) \Rightarrow

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_* T^4 \quad (S.40)$$

Taking the square root of both sides \Rightarrow

$$H = k g^{\frac{1}{2}} T^2 \quad (S.41)$$

where g_* counts the total number of effectively massless degrees of freedom.

T is the temperature & k is a constant which can be determined from fundamental constants of nature by using eqns (S.40) & (S.41) above i.e. $k = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi G}{30}}$

S.41

$$t = \alpha g^* T^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

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The age of the universe can be determined by using eqn (5.38) & (5.41).

$$\text{Thus } t = \frac{1}{2} H^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} k^{-1} g^* T^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

or
the age \rightarrow $t = \alpha g^* T^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ (5.41)

where g^* counts the total number of relativistic degrees of freedom, T is the temperature & α is a const which can be written down in terms of fundamental constants of nature, i.e. $\alpha = \frac{1}{2} k^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{90}{8\pi^3 G}}$ (5.42)

as $T \downarrow$ so early universe was hot

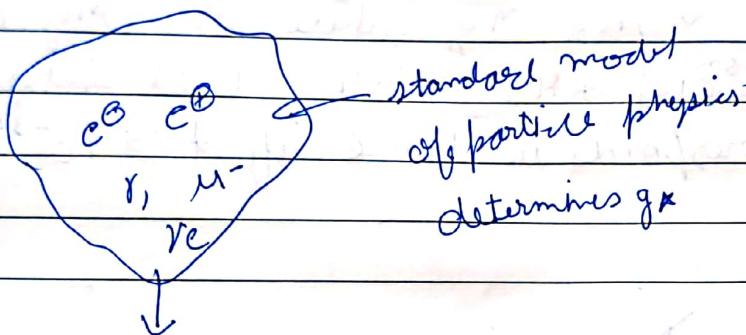
g^* itself depends on t & T .

History Of The Universe

\downarrow
Einstein eqn

\downarrow
geometry \leftarrow contents of the universe
scale $R(t)$

$$\begin{matrix} P, P \\ \downarrow \\ g^* \end{matrix}$$



- ① Particles \rightarrow Large No.
- ② Interactions \rightarrow 4

Interactions

- Gravity
- Electromagnetism
- strong nuclear force
- Weak

Unification

Gravity

Strong N

Weak N

EM

Grand Unified theory

GUTS

10^{2} GeV

10^{-36} sec

$10^{14} - 10^{16} \text{ GeV}$

10^{-48} sec

10^{19} GeV

The parameters that control the onset of the quantum gravity involves the fundamental constants c , \hbar & g in the combination with the dimensions of time for $t \sim (G\hbar/c^5)^{1/2} \sim 10^{-43}$ sec
 [This is called the plank Time].

The next event after the end of the quantum gravity era is the breakdown of Grand统一ification. This happens when $k_B T \sim M_{Pl}, M_{GUT}$ where M_{Pl}, M_{GUT} are the mass of bosons ~~carrying~~ ^{carrying} radiating GUT interactions. This corresponds to time of $t \sim 10^{-34}$ sec.

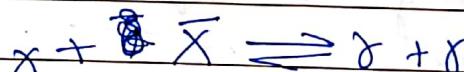
~~From~~

~~YR~~

~~photons~~

Bosons \leftarrow carry off EM interaction.

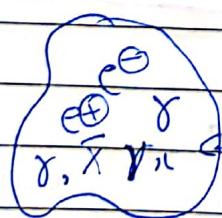
~~M_{Pl} & M_{GUT}~~ annihilate with time as temp drops



at low temp reverse is not possible

and the contribution of boson is trivial after GUT

After GUT era can use standard model



All particles \rightarrow from a primordial soup.

The primordial soup consists of different species

of elementary particles the masses range from the heaviest known elementary particle the tripentaquark ($m \sim 1750 \text{ GeV}$) down to the lightest particle, the e^{\pm} ($m = 511 \text{ keV}$), the ν neutrinos & the photon ($m = 0$). As the temperature falls the various particle becomes non-relativistic & annihilate at different times. We will next discuss the various particles in the standard model & number of degrees of freedom associated with this particles.

History of the universe

detected by $p, p \rightarrow g^{\pm}$

\rightarrow controls of the universe.

Introduction

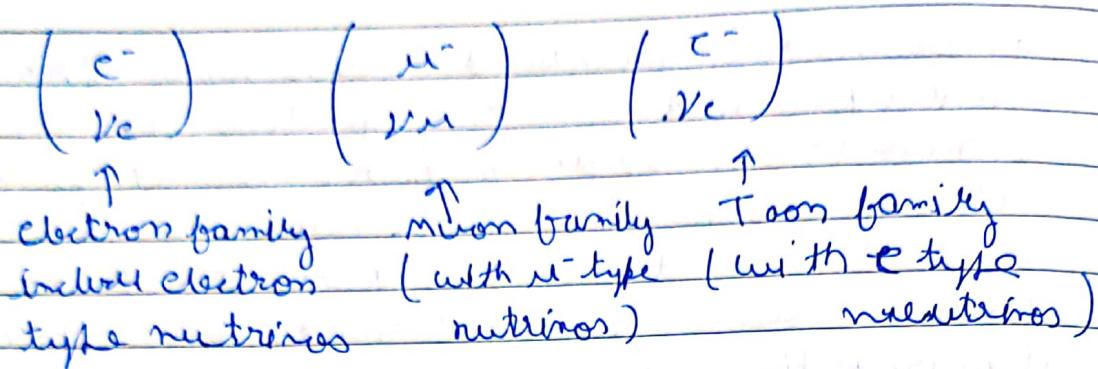
Particles

standard Model

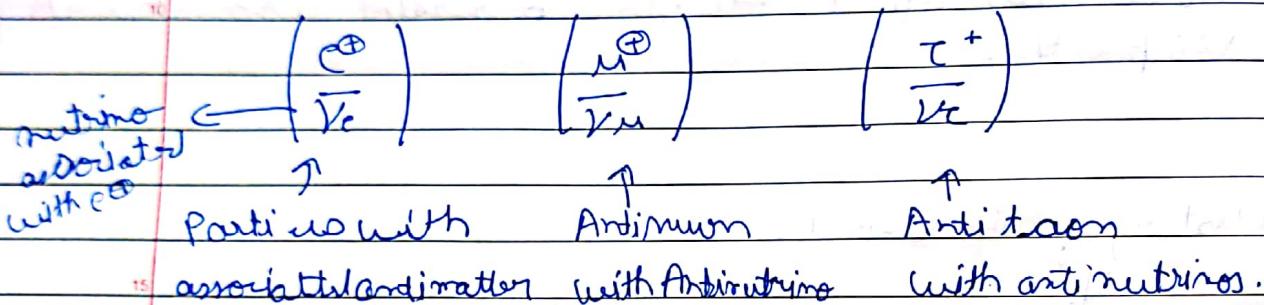
of particle physics

① Standard Model

Elementary particles comes in several categories. First there are the most familiar particles such as the electrons, muons & the neutrinos called the leptons. There are 3 families of leptons.



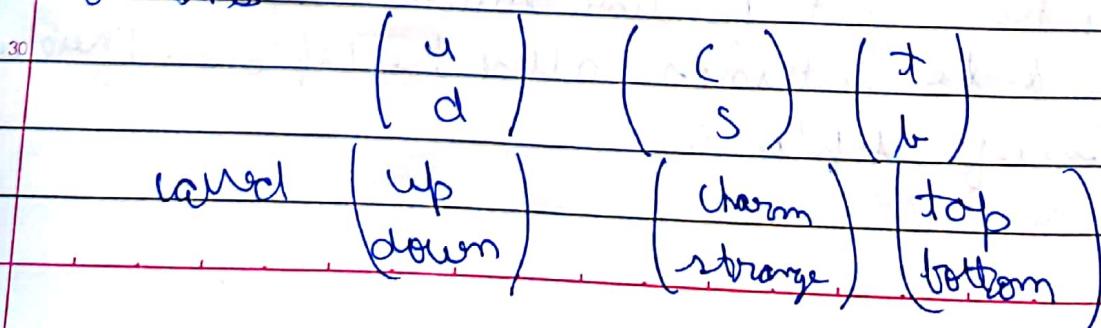
and the anti-particle for each of the particles



The leptons are spin $1/2$ particles & ~~are~~ are fermions.

The leptons in addition to electromagnetic forces (associated with electric charges) also ~~experience~~ experience weak nuclear forces. The mediator of EM forces is the photon γ . The mediators of the weak nuclear forces are the ~~fermion~~ gauge bosons called w^+, w^- & z^0 . They are spin 1 particles & is massless (w^+, w^-) & z^0 ~~have~~ have masses in $80-90$ GeV range.

- ① The strongly interacting spin $1/2$ particles are called quarks. The quarks (like the leptons) come in 3 families



Their electric charges are $\begin{pmatrix} +2/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} +2/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 2/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix}$

The similarity of particles properties such as electric charge led to the nomenclature of 'generations' or 'families' because it looks like there are 3 copies of the same structure with most properties the same (except for mass which increases to the right as you move up the family or generation ladder).

~~Standard Model~~

In addition to the quarks carrying electric charge they also carry another internal degree of freedom called 'colour'. This colour is an internal degree of freedom that has to do with the strong interactions. There are 3 such 'colours'. So there are 3 degrees of freedom corresponding to colour for each of the quarks.

The carriers of strong interaction are massless gauge called gluons. There are 8 of these massless gauge bosons called gluons. Finally there is the Higgs boson which is responsible for giving masses to all the particles. The Higgs boson is a spin 0 particle. This complete the list of elementary particles. Other particles are made up of these elementary particles.

Thus the proton is made up of the uud quarks.

The neutrons " " " " " udd. The π^\pm

mesons are made up of $u\bar{d}$ & $d\bar{u}$ quarks & the π^0 is

$u\bar{u} - d\bar{d}$ in terms of quarks. Nip are spin $1/2$ &

$\boxed{\text{Fe}}$ The muons are spin 0 particles.

Atmosphere At high energy densities & high temperature, the proton, neutron & the various mesons etc. are broken up into the constituent quarks & the gluons. The fundamental constituents consist of the elementary particles such as Quarks, leptons, gluons, electroweak gauge bosons & the Higgs boson.

We now summarize the properties of these particles & count the associated degree of freedom. The degree of freedom enter into P & P & determine the evolution of history of the universe.

Particles in standard model

| Particles | Anti-particles | spin | colour | Total |
|-----------|----------------|------|--------|-------|
|-----------|----------------|------|--------|-------|

| | | | | |
|----------------------|-----|-----------|---------------|------------|
| Quarks (Fermions) | t | \bar{t} | $\frac{1}{2}$ | 3 |
| | b | \bar{b} | $\frac{1}{2}$ | 3 |
| | c | \bar{c} | $\frac{1}{2}$ | 3 |
| | s | \bar{s} | $\frac{1}{2}$ | 3 |
| | d | \bar{d} | $\frac{1}{2}$ | 3 |
| | u | \bar{u} | $\frac{1}{2}$ | 3 |
| | | | | $\times 6$ |
| | | | | $72 +$ |

Gluons 8 masses Bosons 1 Massless $\rightarrow g = 2 \times 8 + 1 = 17$

| | | | | |
|-----------------------|------------|------------|---------------|----------------------|
| Leptons (Fermions) | e^- | e^+ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $g = 2 \times 2 = 4$ |
| | μ^- | μ^+ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | |
| | τ^- | τ^+ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | |
| | ν_e | ν_μ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | |
| | ν_μ | ν_τ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | |
| | ν_τ | ν_e | $\frac{1}{2}$ | |
| | | | | $\times 3$ |
| | | | | $12 +$ |
| | | | | $\times 3$ |
| | | | | $6 +$ |

| Particles | Anti-Particles | Spin colour of | Total |
|--------------------|----------------|----------------|---------|
| leptons | w^+ | 1 | $g = 3$ |
| gaugino (Boson) | w^- | 1 | |
| | 2^0 | 1 | |
| photons | γ | massless | $g = 2$ |
| liginosons | H^0 | 0 | $g = 1$ |

17 Total number of degrees of freedom = $g_f = 73 + 12 + 6 = 90$
 18 Bosonic D.O.F. = $g_b = 16 + 11 + 1 = 28$

19 Total effective degrees of freedom = $g_{\star} = g_b + \frac{7}{8} g_f =$

20 $= 28 + \frac{7}{8} \times 90 = 106.75$

$\Rightarrow g_{\star} = 106.75$

for all particles in the standard model.

$| g_{\star} (T > 100 \text{ GeV}) = 106.75 |$

Degrees of freedom associated with spin

(a) for massless particles

25 $g(s) = 2s + 1$ for ~~even~~ $s = \frac{1}{2}$ $g(s) = 2$

(b) for massive particles

26 $g(s) = 2s$ for γ (bottom) $s = 1$ $g(s) = 2$

gr evolution with temp.

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History of Universe \rightarrow determined the contents of the universe
 \downarrow

$$g^*(T) \leftarrow \text{standard Model}$$

Comments discussion on cosmology earlier.

Recall Friedmann eqn relates expansion of universe to P & ρ

The total energy density ρ is just the sum of the energy density over all the particle species $\rho = \sum_i \rho_i(T)$

where i runs over all particle species. Also note that for non-relativistic species suppose by exponential Boltzmann factor.

Thus sum over all species to a very good approximation involves only relativistic species thus ρ is

$$\rho(T) = \frac{n^2}{30} g^*(T) T^4 \quad (6.1)$$

where g^* counts the total number of effective degrees of freedom $g^*(T) = g_b(T) + \frac{7}{8} g_f(T)$

& $g_b = \sum_i g_i$ one relativistic bosons

$$g_f = \sum_i g_i \quad 11 \text{ fermions}$$

If pressure P is $P = \frac{1}{3} \rho(T)$

Reason for \bullet g^* to change as T changes

- 1) Species change from relativistic species to non-relativistic species. This is determined by the mass of the species as compared to

the temperature T . As universe evolves T drops, more and more species become non-relativistic.

2) Particle - Antiparticle annihilation also decreases the effective number of degrees of freedom g_* . Thus, for example, e^+ & e^- annihilate with each other through the reaction



& this leads to a decrease in g_* .

→ Let's pick up history of universe where we have left it - after the end of quantum gravity era & the era of grand unification which happens at $T \sim 10^{17} - 10^{16}$ GeV. There is no dramatic change b/w 10^{14} GeV & 10^5 GeV. [nearly $g_* = \text{constant}$ during this period & $P \propto T^4$ & $P \propto R^{-4}$ & $\Delta P \propto T^4$ as discussed earlier]

For $T \gtrsim m_f = \text{mass of the top quark} = 175$ GeV
(heaviest particle in standard model).

all known particles are relativistic.

We add up their degrees of freedom to obtain:

$$g_b = 28 \quad g_f = 90$$

$$\Rightarrow g_* = g_b + \frac{7}{8} g_f = 106.75$$

By $T \sim 100$ GeV, top quark annihilation happens.

This means degree of freedom corresponding to t & \bar{t} disappears from the sum for g_* . The number of degrees of freedom that disappeared at $T \sim 100$ GeV

$$g_* = \frac{7}{8} \times 2 \times 2 \times 5 = 10.5$$

↑ ↑ ↓ ↓

Fermions 2 parts spin 1/2 3 colors.

Thus number of degrees of freedom decreases by 10.5 after top quarks and antiquarks ($t & \bar{t}$) annihilation since we started out with 106.75 degree of freedom. After $t - \bar{t}$ annihilation ($T \sim 100$ GeV), the effective number of degrees of freedom is:

$$g_* = 106.75 - 10.5 = 96.25$$

The next set of particles to annihilate are the Higgs boson & the electroweak gauge boson w^\pm, z^0 .

The corresponding degrees of freedom which disappear after annihilation are

$$w^\pm, z^0 : 3 \times 3 = 9$$

↑ ↓

No. of particles spin = 1

$$H^0 : 1 \times 1 = 1$$

↑ ↓

± 1 of particles spin = 0

All bosons : Total of 10 degree of freedom disappear after Higgs boson & electroweak gauge bosons annihilate.

w^\pm, z^0 annihilate at $T \sim 80$ GeV. after $T < 80$ GeV we have $g_* = 96.25 - 10 = 86.25$

Next is the annihilation of bottom & antibottom ($b\bar{b}$): quarks annihilations. This happens at $T \sim 4$ GeV. number of $d\cdot u \cdot f \cdot g$ that disappear:

$$g_{\cancel{b}} = \frac{7}{8} \times 2 \times 2 \times 3 = 10.5$$

↑ ↑ ↑ ↓
Fermions ~~antiquarks~~ 2pm colour.
 spins

They appear to annihilate for $T < 4$ GeV we have:

$$g_{\cancel{b}} = 86.25 - 10.5 = 75.75$$

At $T \sim 1$ GeV both the charm-anti charm ($c\bar{c}$)

quark annihilate as well as the $e^- - e^+$ leptons

annihilation occurs. The number of degree of freedom - fermion that disappear are

~~$C - \bar{C}$~~ $g_{\cancel{c}} = \frac{7}{8} \times 2 \times 2 \times 3 = 10.5$

~~$e^- - e^+$~~ $g_{\cancel{e}} = \frac{7}{8} \times 2 \times 2 = 3.5$

14.0

After ~~$C + e^- + e^+$~~ annihilation for $T < 1$ GeV, we have $g_{\cancel{c}} = 75.75 - 14.0 = 61.75$

• Next event Quark-~~to~~ Hadron Transition

~~Transition~~

This is a major transition

Quark-hadron phase transition.

Quarks & Gluons \rightarrow Baryons : n, p

($q, \bar{q}, -, -$)

Mesons : π^+, π^-, π^0

In the quark hadron phase transition the quarks get tied together to form the hadrons. This, for example in (uud) (uud) quarks get bound together to form the proton (p) $\frac{1}{2}(\bar{u}d\bar{d})$, and the neutron (n). Similarly $u \& d$ quarks get bound together to form the π^\pm, π^0 mesons.

Before phase transition you have the quark gluon plasma. After phase transition you have hadrons in the form of a hadron gas. The lightest hadrons are the proton (p) & neutron (n), and the pions (π^\pm, π^0) of all ~~all~~ the hadrons the only ones that are relativistic after the quark hadrons phase transition are the pions (π^\pm, π^0). After the Quark Hadron Phase transition, the only particle species left in large numbers are the pions, muons, electrons, neutrinos & the photons. We will thus count the number of degrees of freedom corresponding to these particles to determine ~~the effect of~~ after the quark gluon phase transition.