

Freeze-Out of Particles

Abtin Narimani

University of Bonn

s6abnari@uni-bonn.de

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- 1 The Basic Principles
- 2 Equilibrium Thermodynamics
- 3 Boltzmann Equation and Beyond Equilibrium
- 4 Summary

- The early Universe was in local thermal equilibrium.

$$\Gamma \gtrsim H \quad \text{or} \quad t_{int} \lesssim t_H \quad (\text{coupled})$$

- During expansion, the rate of expansion of the Universe (H) became larger than rate of interaction (Γ) \Rightarrow particles fell out of the thermal equilibrium.

$$\Gamma \lesssim H \quad \text{or} \quad t_{int} \gtrsim t_H \quad (\text{decoupled})$$

Freeze-Out

- Is $\Gamma \gg H$ satisfied for SM processes for $T \gtrsim 100 \text{ GeV}$?

$$\Gamma \equiv n\sigma v, \quad v \sim 1, \quad n \sim T^3, \quad \sigma \sim \frac{\alpha^2}{T^2} \quad \rightarrow \Gamma \sim \alpha^2 T$$
$$H \sim \frac{\rho^{1/2}}{M_{Pl}}, \quad \rho \sim T^4 \quad \rightarrow H \sim \frac{T^2}{M_{Pl}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma}{H} \sim \frac{\alpha^2 M_{Pl}}{T} \sim \frac{10^{16} \text{ GeV}}{T} \quad \text{with } \alpha \sim 0.01$$

$\Gamma \gg H$ is satisfied for $100 \text{ GeV} \lesssim T \lesssim 10^{16} \text{ GeV}$

Local Thermal Equilibrium

- Distribution function (the number of particles per unit volume in phase space):

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)/T} \pm 1} \quad (+ \text{ for fermions, } - \text{ for bosons})$$

- Relativistic particles dominate density and pressure of the primordial plasma.

When $T \ll m$, particles become non-relativistic, then $f(E) \rightarrow e^{-m/T}$

- Total energy density (ρ_r) is approximated by:

$$\rho_r \propto \sum_i \int E_i(p) f_i(p) d^3p \quad \Rightarrow \quad \rho_r = \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_*(T) T^4$$

At early times, all particles are relativistic $\rightarrow g_* = 106.75$

$g_*(T)$ vs. T

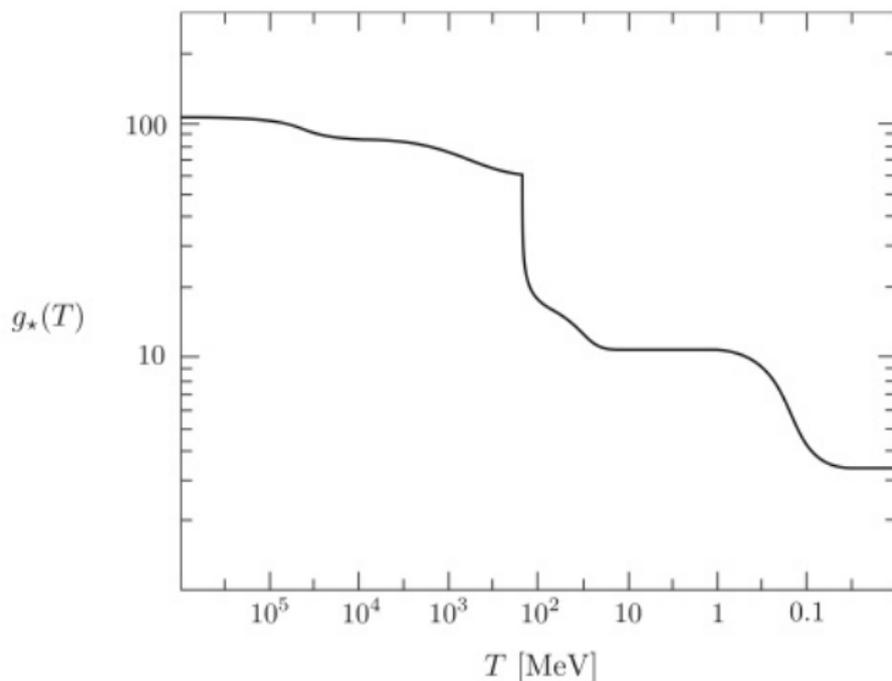


Figure: Evolution of the number of relativistic degrees of freedom as a function of temperature in the Standard Model.

Freeze-Out

- Deviation from equilibrium led to the *freeze-out* of massive particles.

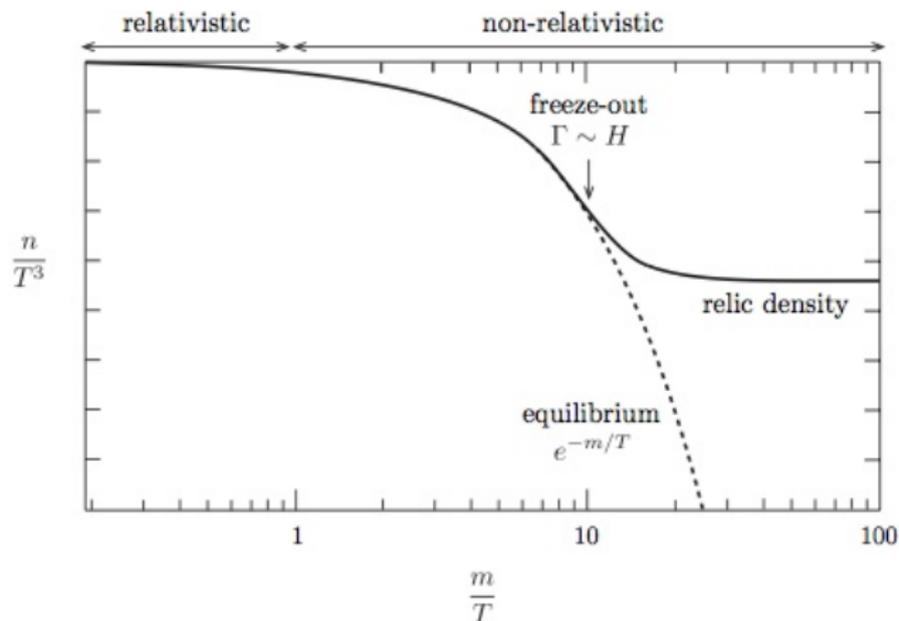


Figure: A schematic illustration of particle freeze-out.

Image Source: Daniel D. Baumann, Lecture notes on Cosmology

- Below 100GeV, W^\pm and Z receive masses, $M_W \sim M_Z$.
- Cross section associated with processes mediated by weak interaction:

$$\sigma \sim \frac{\alpha^2}{M_W^4} T^2$$

$$\frac{\Gamma}{H} \sim \frac{\alpha^2 M_{Pl} T^3}{M_W^4} \sim \left(\frac{T}{1\text{MeV}} \right)^3$$

Particles that interact with the primordial plasma only through the **weak** interaction decouple at $T_{dec} \sim 1\text{MeV}$

A brief History of the Universe

Key events are:

- Baryogenesis
- Electroweak transition
- Dark matter freeze-out
- QCD transition
- Neutrino decoupling
- $e^+ - e^-$ annihilation
- Big Bang nucleosynthesis
- Recombination

Key events

Event	Time	Temperature
Inflation	10^{-34} s(?)	—
Baryogenesis	?	?
EW phase transition	20 ps	100 GeV
Dark matter freeze-out	?	?
QCD phase transition	20 μ s	150 MeV
Neutrino decoupling	1 s	1 MeV
$e^+ - e^-$ annihilation	6 s	500 keV
Big Bang nucleosynthesis	3 min	100 keV
Matter-radiation equality	60 kyr	0.75 eV
Recombination	260 – 380 kyr	0.26 – 0.33 eV
Photon decoupling	380 kyr	0.23 – 0.38 eV
Reionization	100 – 400 Myr	2.6 – 7.0 meV
Dark energy-matter equality	9 Gyr	0.33 meV
Present	13.8 Gyr	0.24 meV

- *Phase space* is useful for description of the system.
- Density of states in momentum space: $L^3/h^3 = V/h^3$.
- Density of states in phase space with g internal degrees of freedom is $g/h^3 = g/(2\pi)^3$.
- Information about the distribution of particles amongst momentum eigenstates is in *phase space distribution function* $f(x, \vec{p})$ (because of homogeneity and isotropy $f(x, \vec{p}) = f(p)$).
- Particle density in phase space is $\frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} f(p)$.

Number density, Energy density, Pressure

For a weakly interacting gas of particles

- Number density:

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

- Energy density:

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

- Pressure:

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

with $E^2(p) = p^2 + m^2$

Local Thermal Equilibrium

- If particles exchange energy and momentum efficiently, system is in kinetic equilibrium.

Fermi-Dirac and Bose-Einstein distributions: $f(p) = \frac{1}{e^{(E(p)-\mu)/T} \pm 1}$

- At low T , ($T < E - \mu$), these reduce to Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution:

$$f(p) \approx e^{-(E(p)-\mu)/T}$$

- If a species is in chemical equilibrium, for a process like $i + j \leftrightarrow k + l$, μ_i is related to μ_j which implies: $\mu_i + \mu_j = \mu_k + \mu_l$

For $X + \bar{X} \leftrightarrow \gamma + \gamma$: $\mu_X + \mu_{\bar{X}} = \mu_\gamma + \mu_\gamma \rightarrow \mu_X = -\mu_{\bar{X}}$

Thermal equilibrium is achieved for species which are both in kinetic and chemical equilibrium.

Number and Energy Densities

- At early times, μ of all particles were so small ($\mu = 0$).
- Number density:

$$n = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int f(p) d^3p = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty dp \frac{p^2}{\exp(\sqrt{p^2 + m^2}/T) \pm 1}$$

- Energy density:

$$\rho = \frac{g}{(2\pi)^3} \int E(p) f(p) d^3p = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty dp \frac{p^2 \sqrt{p^2 + m^2}}{\exp(\sqrt{p^2 + m^2}/T) \pm 1}$$

- Defining $x \equiv m/T$ and $\xi \equiv p/T$:

$$n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} T^3 \int_0^\infty d\xi \frac{\xi^2}{\exp(\sqrt{\xi^2 + x^2}) \pm 1}$$

$$\rho = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} T^4 \int_0^\infty d\xi \frac{\xi^2 \sqrt{\xi^2 + x^2}}{\exp(\sqrt{\xi^2 + x^2}) \pm 1}$$

Relativistic Limit

- In the limit $x \rightarrow 0$ or $m/T \rightarrow 0$ ($m \ll T$):

$$n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} T^3 \int_0^\infty d\xi \frac{\xi^2}{e^\xi \pm 1} = \begin{cases} \frac{\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} g T^3 & \text{bosons} \\ \frac{3}{4} \frac{\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} g T^3 & \text{fermions} \end{cases}$$

$$\rho = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} T^4 \int_0^\infty d\xi \frac{\xi^3}{e^\xi \pm 1} = \begin{cases} \frac{\pi^2}{30} g T^4 & \text{bosons} \\ \frac{7}{8} \frac{\pi^2}{30} g T^4 & \text{fermions} \end{cases}$$

$$P = \rho/3$$

- For relic photons using the temperature of CMB ($T_0 = 2.73K$)

$$n_{\gamma,0} = \frac{2\zeta(3)}{\pi^2} T_0^3 \approx 410 \text{ photons } cm^{-3}$$

$$\rho_{\gamma,0} = \frac{\pi^2}{15} T_0^4 \approx 4.6 \times 10^{-34} g cm^{-3} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Omega_\gamma h^2 \approx 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$$

Non-relativistic Limit

- In the limit $x \gg 1$ or $m/T \gg 1$ ($m \gg T$):

$$n = \frac{g}{2\pi^2} T^3 \int_0^\infty d\xi \frac{\xi^2}{e^{\sqrt{\xi^2+x^2}}} = g \left(\frac{mT}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} e^{-m/T}$$

Massive particles are rare at low temperature.

At the lowest order $E(p) \approx m$ and energy density is equal to mass density:

$$\rho \approx mn$$

A non-relativistic gas of particles acts like a pressureless dust:

$$P = nT \ll \rho = mn$$

Effective Number of Relativistic Species

- Total radiation density: $\rho_r = \sum_i \rho_i \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_\star(T) T^4$

where $g_\star(T)$ is effective number of relativistic d.o.f at temperature T

- Two types of contributions:
 - Relativistic species are in thermal equilibrium with the photons, $T_i = T \gg m_i$

$$g_\star^{th}(T) = \sum_{i=bosons} g_i + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{i=fermions} g_i$$

Away from mass threshold, thermal contribution is independent of T .

- Relativistic species are **not** in thermal equilibrium with the photons, $T_i \neq T \gg m_i$

$$g_\star^{dec}(T) = \sum_{i=bosons} g_i \left(\frac{T_i}{T}\right)^4 + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{i=fermions} g_i \left(\frac{T_i}{T}\right)^4$$

- At $T \gtrsim 100 \text{ GeV}$, all particles of SM are relativistic.

Internal d.o.f:

$$g_b = 28 \quad \text{photons (2), } W^\pm \text{ and } Z^0 (3 \cdot 3), \text{ gluons } (8 \cdot 2), \text{ Higgs (1)}$$
$$g_f = 90 \quad \text{quarks } (6 \cdot 12), \text{ charged leptons } (3 \cdot 4), \text{ neutrinos } (3 \cdot 2)$$

Therefore:

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

- 1 Top quarks: $g_* = 106.75 - \frac{7}{8} \times 12 = 96.25$
- 2 Higgs, W^\pm and Z^0 : $g_* = 96.25 - (1 + 3 \times 3) = 86.25$
- 3 Bottom quarks: $g_* = 86.25 - \frac{7}{8} \times 12 = 75.75$
- 4 Charm quarks and tau leptons: $g_* = 75.75 - \frac{7}{8} \times (12 + 4) = 61.75$
- 5 Matter undergoes the QCD transition and quarks combine into baryons and mesons.
- 6 For $\pi^\pm, \pi^0, e^\pm, \mu^\pm, \nu's, \gamma$: $g_* = 2 + 3 + \frac{7}{8} \times (4 + 4 + 6) = 17.25$
- 7 In order to understand electron-positron annihilation we need [entropy](#).

$g_*(T)$ vs. T

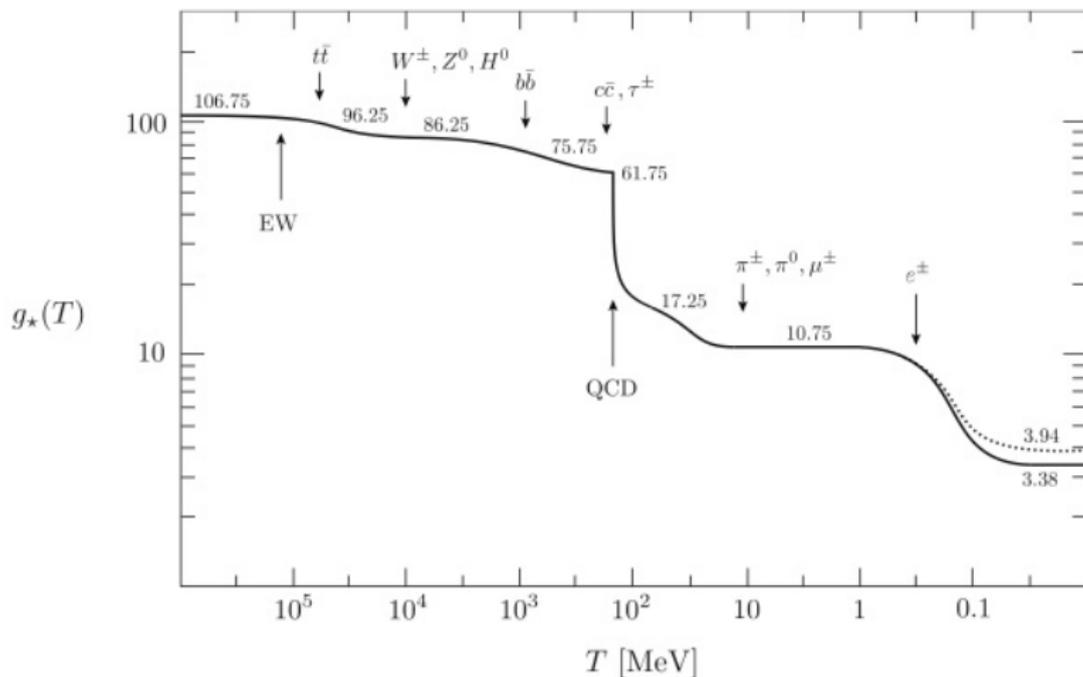


Figure: Evolution of the number of relativistic degrees of freedom as a function of temperature in the Standard Model.

Image Source: Daniel D. Baumann, Lecture notes on Cosmology

- To describe the evolution of the Universe, we need a conserved quantity.
- Total entropy increases or stays constant.
- Entropy is conserved in equilibrium.
- To a good approximation, expansion of the Universe is **adiabatic**, therefore the total entropy stays constant beyond equilibrium.

Effective Number of degrees of freedom in Entropy

- Considering 2nd law of thermodynamics: $TdS = dU + PdV$. Using

$U = \rho V$, then:

$$dS = d\left(\frac{\rho+P}{T}V\right)$$

\Rightarrow entropy is conserved in equilibrium, $\frac{dS}{dt} = 0$.

$$(\dot{\rho} + 3H(\rho + P)) = 0 \text{ and } \frac{\partial P}{\partial T} = \frac{\rho+P}{T}$$

- Define entropy density: $s \equiv S/V \rightarrow s = \frac{\rho+P}{T}$

The total energy density for a collision of different particle species:

$$s = \sum_i \frac{\rho_i+P_i}{T_i} = \frac{2\pi^2}{45} g_{*S}(T) T^3$$

Effective Number of degrees of freedom in Entropy is

$$g_{*S}(T) = g_{*S}^{th}(T) + g_{*S}^{dec}(T)$$

- For species in equilibrium: $g_{*S}^{th}(T) = g_*^{th}(T)$
- For decoupled species:

$$g_{*S}^{dec}(T) = \sum_{i=bosons} g_i \left(\frac{T_i}{T}\right)^3 + \frac{7}{8} \sum_{i=fermions} g_i \left(\frac{T_i}{T}\right)^3 \neq g_*^{dec}(T)$$

- Conservation of entropy has 2 consequences:
 - ① $s \propto a^{-3} \rightarrow$ the number of particles in a comoving volume: $N_i \equiv n_i/s$
 - ② $g_{*S}(T)T^3a^3 = \text{constant}$ or $T \propto g_{*S}^{-1/3}(T)a^{-1}$
 The factor $g_{*S}^{-1/3}(T)$ accounts for the fact whenever a particle species becomes non-relativistic, its entropy is transferred to the other relativistic particles present in the thermal plasma.

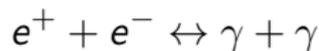
- We already knew $\frac{\Gamma}{H} \sim \left(\frac{T}{1\text{MeV}}\right)^3$
- After decoupling, ν 's move freely along geodesics and preserve relativistic Fermi-Dirac distribution.
- Momentum $p \propto 1/a$, thus we define $q \equiv ap$:

$$n_\nu \propto \frac{1}{a^3} \int \frac{d^3q}{e^{(q/aT_\nu)} + 1}$$

consistent if $T_\nu \propto 1/a$

- $T_\gamma \sim T_\nu$, however particle annihilations will cause a deviation from $T_\gamma \propto 1/a$

- Shortly after neutrinos decouple, T drops below m_e and $e^+ - e^-$ annihilation occurs:



- If we neglect ν 's and other species:

$$g_{*S}^{th}(T) = \begin{cases} 2 + \frac{7}{8} \times 4 = \frac{11}{2} & T \gtrsim m_e \\ 2 & T < m_e \end{cases}$$

- Since $g_{*S}^{th}(aT_\gamma)^3 = \text{constant}$, then aT_γ increases after $e^+ - e^-$ annihilation by a factor $(11/4)^{1/3}$. Then $T_\nu = (4/11)^{1/3} T_\gamma$.

- For $T \ll m_e$:

$$N_{eff} = 3.046$$

$$g_{\star} = 2 + \frac{7}{8} 2N_{eff} \left(\frac{4}{11} \right)^{4/3} = 3.36$$

$$g_{\star S} = 2 + \frac{7}{8} 2N_{eff} \left(\frac{4}{11} \right) = 3.94$$

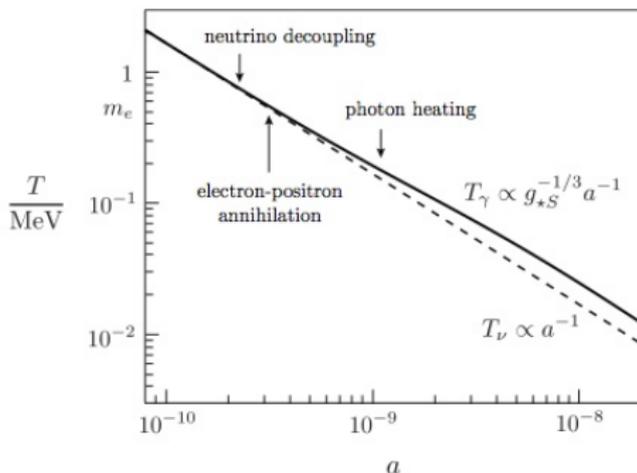


Figure: Thermal history through $e^+ - e^-$ annihilation

Image Source: Daniel D. Baumann, Lecture notes on Cosmology

- In the absence of interactions, the number density of particle species evolves as:

$$\frac{1}{a^3} \frac{d(n_i a^3)}{dt} = \frac{dn_i}{dt} + 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} n_i = 0$$

Number of particles in a fixed volume is conserved.

- To include interactions of particles, a collision term is added to the other side of equation:

$$\frac{1}{a^3} \frac{d(n_i a^3)}{dt} = C_i[\{n_j\}]$$

Boltzmann equation

Boltzmann equation

- We can limit ourselves to single-particle and two-particle scatterings / annihilations.

Consider process $1 + 2 \leftrightarrow 3 + 4$. Suppose we track the number density n_1 , then:

$$\frac{1}{a^3} \frac{d(n_1 a^3)}{dt} = -A n_1 n_2 + B n_3 n_4$$

- $A = \langle \sigma v \rangle$: Thermally averaged cross section

Since the collision term has to vanish in equilibrium: $B = \left(\frac{n_1 n_2}{n_3 n_4} \right)_{eq} A$

where n_i^{eq} are the equilibrium number densities. Then:

$$\frac{1}{a^3} \frac{d(n_1 a^3)}{dt} = -\langle \sigma v \rangle \left[n_1 n_2 + \left(\frac{n_1 n_2}{n_3 n_4} \right)_{eq} n_3 n_4 \right]$$

- In terms of number of particles in a comoving volume:

$$\frac{d \ln N_1}{d \ln a} = -\frac{\Gamma_1}{H} \left[1 - \left(\frac{N_1 N_2}{N_3 N_4} \right)_{eq} \frac{N_3 N_4}{N_1 N_2} \right]$$

where $\Gamma_1 \equiv n_2 \langle \sigma v \rangle$

$\frac{\Gamma_1}{H}$ describes the interaction efficiency

- 1 For $\Gamma_1 \gg H$, the system quickly relaxes to a steady state.
- 2 When $\Gamma_1 < H$, r.h.s. gets suppressed and comoving density of particles approaches a **constant relic density**.

- We assume that the dark matter is a weakly interacting massive particle (WIMP).
- Solving Boltzmann eq. and determine the epoch of freeze-out and its relic abundance.
- Assumptions are:
 - 1 Annihilation of a heavy dark matter particle and anti-particle produce two light particles: $X + \bar{X} \leftrightarrow l + \bar{l}$
 - 2 Light particles are tightly coupled to the cosmic plasma, thus $n_l = n_l^{eq}$
 - 3 There is no asymmetry between X and \bar{X} ($n_X = n_{\bar{X}}$)

$$\frac{dN_X}{dt} = -s \langle \sigma v \rangle [N_X^2 - (N_X^{eq})^2]$$

$$N_X \equiv n_X/s, N_X^{eq} \equiv n_X^{eq}/s$$

- Define $x \equiv M_X/T$, then write Boltzmann eq. in terms of x :

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{M_X}{T} \right) = -\frac{1}{T} \frac{dT}{dt} x \simeq Hx$$

By assuming the radiation domination $h = H(M_X)/x^2$, then:

$$\frac{dN_X}{dx} = -\frac{\lambda}{x^2} [N_X^2 - (N_X^{eq})^2]$$

where $\lambda \equiv \frac{2\pi^2}{45} g_{*S} \frac{M_X^2 \langle \sigma v \rangle}{H(M_X)}$

It is called Riccati equation.

There is no analytic solution for it.

Freeze-out density of DM

- At high temperature ($x < 1$): $N_X \approx N_X^{eq} \simeq 1$
- At low temperature ($x \gg 1$): $N_X^{eq} \sim e^{-x}$

Thus X particles will become so rare and they cannot find each other fast enough to maintain equilibrium abundance.

- Freeze-out happens at $x_f \sim 20$, where solution starts to deviate from equilibrium.
- Final relic abundance: $N_X^\infty \equiv N_X(x = \infty)$ (freeze-out density of DM)
- After freeze-out $N_X \gg N_X^{eq}$, thus we can drop N_X^{eq} :

$$\frac{dN_X}{dx} \simeq -\frac{\lambda N_X^2}{x^2} \quad \rightarrow \quad \int_{x_f}^{\infty} (\dots) \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{N_X^\infty} - \frac{1}{N_X^f} = \frac{\lambda}{x_f}$$

where $N_X^f \equiv N_X(x_f)$. Typically, $N_X^f \gg N_X^\infty$, then: $N_X^\infty \simeq \frac{x_f}{\lambda}$

This predicts the freeze-out abundance N_X^∞ decreases as the interaction rate λ increases.

Dark Matter Relics

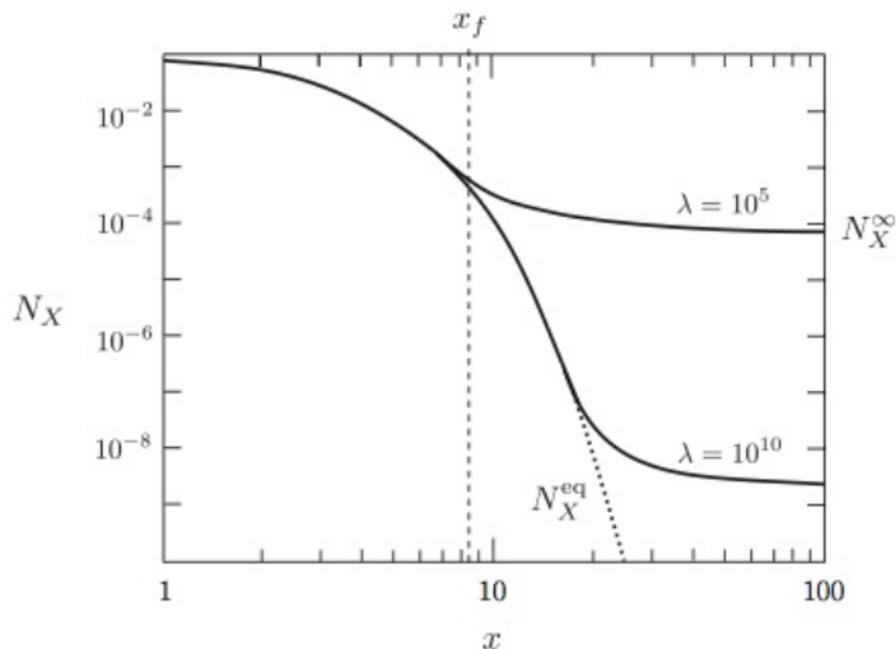


Figure: Abundance of dark matter particles as the temperature drops below the mass.

Image Source: Daniel D. Baumann, Lecture notes on Cosmology

WIMP "Miracle"

Relating the freeze-out abundance of DM relics to the DM density today:

$$\begin{aligned}\Omega_X &\equiv \frac{\rho_{X,0}}{\rho_{c,0}} \\ &= \frac{M_X n_{X,0}}{3M_{PL}^2 H_0^2} = \frac{M_X N_{X,0} s_0}{3M_{PL}^2 H_0^2} = M_X N_X^\infty \frac{s_0}{3M_{PL}^2 H_0^2} \\ &= \frac{H(M_X)}{M_X^2} \frac{x_f}{\langle \sigma v \rangle} \frac{g_{*S}(T_0)}{g_{*S}(M_X)} \frac{T_0^3}{3M_{PL}^2 H_0^2} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{9} \frac{x_f}{\langle \sigma v \rangle} \sqrt{\frac{g_*(M_X)}{10}} \frac{g_{*S}(T_0)}{g_{*S}(M_X)} \frac{T_0^3}{3M_{PL}^2 H_0^2}\end{aligned}$$

WIMP "Miracle"

$$\Rightarrow \Omega_X h^2 \sim 0.1 \frac{x_f}{10} \sqrt{\frac{10}{g_*(M_X)}} \frac{10^{-8} \text{GeV}^{-2}}{\langle \sigma v \rangle}$$

This reproduces the observed DM density if:

$$\sqrt{\langle \sigma v \rangle} \sim 10^{-4} \text{GeV}^{-1} \sim 0.1 \sqrt{G_F}$$

The fact that a thermal relic with a **cross section** characteristic of the **weak** interaction gives the right dark matter abundance is called the **WIMP miracle**.

- The early Universe was in thermal equilibrium and freeze-out happened when $\Gamma \lesssim H$.
- After freeze-out particles fell out of equilibrium and decoupled.
- Deviations from equilibrium explain why there is something rather than nothing in the Universe.
- Boltzmann equation is useful to explain non-equilibrium processes.
- Calculate the relic abundance of Dark Matter.
- Cross section of the order of weak interaction gives the right Dark Matter abundance.

-  Edward W. Kolb, Michael S. Turner, *The Early Universe*, Westview Press, 1994.
-  Daniel D. Baumann, Lecture notes on Cosmology.
<http://www.damtp.cam.ac.uk/user/db275/Cosmology/> (version: 29.09.2015).