

BSM in Early Universe Cosmology

1st UNDARK School Benasque

March 10-14 2025

Refs: 1) Kolb and Turner
2) Giblin and Rubakov
3) Dodelson and Schmidt

Contents

Lectures
I and II

- * Thermal History (slides)
- * Cosmological Dynamics
- * Early Universe Thermodynamics
 - Distributions
 - Time/Temperature relation.
 - Conservation of entropy
 - An application to neutrino decoupling.

Lectures
III and IV

- * The Boltzmann equation. Interaction rates and
 - Thermal state of the plasma
 - Production of axions (hot)
 - Evolution of massive stable relics: WIMPS
 - Production and evolution of ~~B~~ CP asymmetries the case of Baryons.

Exercise:

~~So far~~ Obtain the helium abundance in the Universe BSM and from first principles

Cosmological Dynamics

FRWL metric: $ds^2 = dt^2 - a^2 dx^2$

$$\rho_{00} = 8\pi G T_{00} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho$$

1st Friedmann equation

$$T_{ii} = 8\pi G T_{ii} \Rightarrow \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} (\rho + 3p)$$

$$\nabla_\mu T^{\mu 0} = 0 : \dot{\rho} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{dp}{dt} = -3H(\rho + p)$$

continuity equation

Recall that $T^{\mu\nu} = -\eta^{\mu\nu} p + (\rho + p) U^\mu U^\nu$ $U^\mu = (1, \vec{0})$ (rest frame)

evolution of key fluids: $p = w \times \rho$: w : equation of state

Matter: $w=0$ $\rho = \rho_0 \cdot \frac{a^{-3}}{a_0^{-3}}$

Radiation $w = \frac{1}{3} \Rightarrow \rho \propto a^{-4}$

time - Hubble relation: $H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} = \frac{da/dt}{a} \Rightarrow dt = \frac{1}{H} \frac{da}{a}$

Matter Domination: $H = H_0 \cdot a^{-3/2} \Rightarrow t = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{H}$

Radiation Domination: $H = H_0 \cdot a^{-2} \Rightarrow t = \frac{1}{2H}$

Energy density today: $\rho_c = \frac{3 H_0^2}{8\pi G} = 8.1 \cdot 10^{-47} \text{ GeV}^4 \cdot \hbar^2$
 $= 1.9 \cdot 10^{-29} \text{ g/cm}^3$

* Equilibrium Thermodynamics

Motivation $\frac{\delta T}{T} < 10^{-5}$ FIRAS!

$$n \equiv g \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} f(\vec{p}, \vec{x}) \quad \text{number density}$$

$$\rho \equiv g \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} E \cdot f(\vec{p}, \vec{x}) \quad \text{energy density}$$

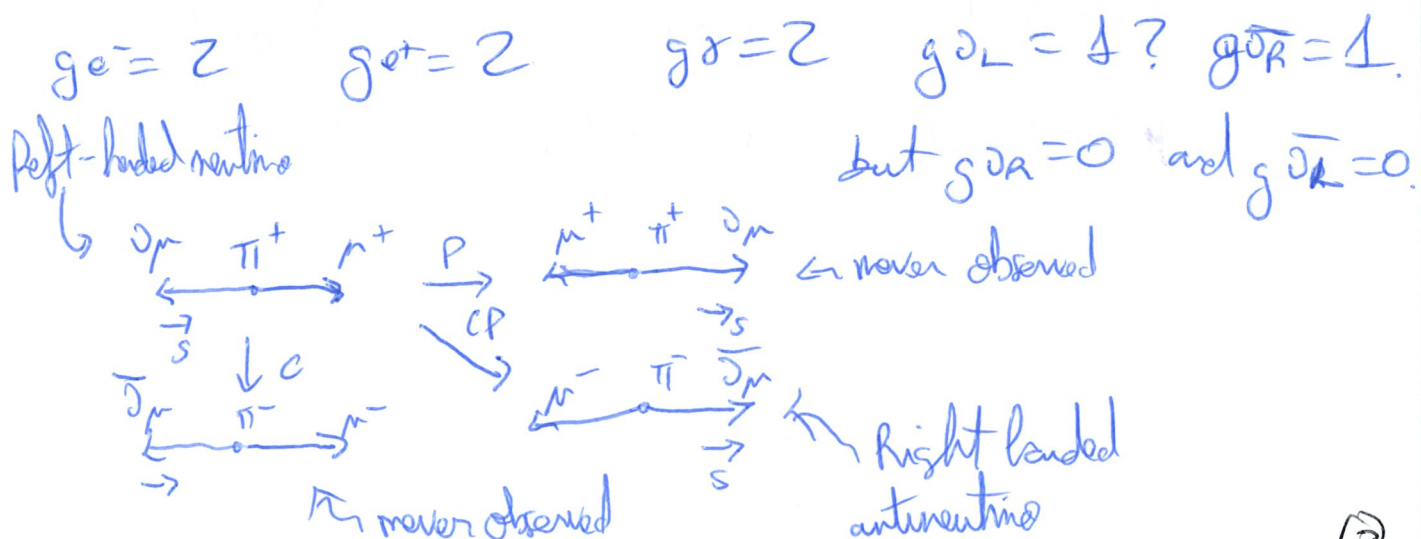
$$p \equiv g \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \frac{|\vec{p}|^2}{3E} f(\vec{p}, \vec{x}) \quad \text{pressure}$$

The early Universe should have been very homogeneous and isotropic. From the CMB we know that $\frac{\Delta T}{T} \sim 10^{-5}$ and the earlier we go the more time it is.

This implies: $f(\vec{x}, \vec{p}) = f(|\vec{p}|)$: Namely, it can only depend upon the magnitude of the momentum.

$g \equiv$ internal number of degrees of freedom:

what are their values:



Thermal Distribution Functions

$$f = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\frac{E}{T} - \frac{\mu}{T}}}$$

Fermi-Dirac

$$f = \frac{1}{-1 + e^{\frac{E}{T} - \frac{\mu}{T}}}$$

Bose-Einstein

($\mu/T \rightarrow 0$)
for massless particles

$$f = e^{-\frac{E}{T} + \frac{\mu}{T}}$$

Maxwell-Boltzmann

Interpretation from 1st law of thermodynamics:

$$dE = Tds - PdV + \sum_i \mu_i dN_i$$

T : Energy needed to increase the entropy

μ_i : Energy needed to increase the number density.

Relativistic limit: $\mu \ll T, T \gg m$

FD

BE

MB

$$n = g \frac{3}{4} \frac{g_3}{\pi^2} T^3$$

$$g \frac{g_3}{\pi^2} T^3$$

$$g \frac{1}{\pi^2} T^3 \quad P = \frac{1}{3} \rho$$

$$f = g \frac{7}{8} \frac{\pi^2}{30} T^4$$

$$g \frac{\pi^2}{30} T^4$$

$$g \frac{3}{\pi^2} T^4$$

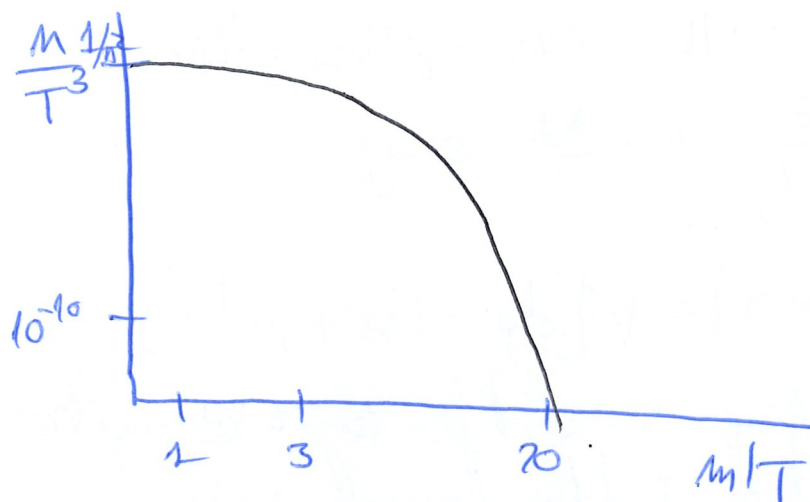
$$\langle E \rangle = 3.15 T$$

$$\langle E \rangle = 7.7 T$$

$$\langle E \rangle = 3 T$$

Non-Relativistic Limit $T \ll m$

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



Exercise: Find T such that $\frac{n}{T^3} \approx 10^{-10}$ for $m = 16 \text{ GeV}$

Consequence:

$T < 50 \text{ MeV}$ only baryons in the Universe

Consequence: The early Universe is dominated by ultrarelativistic particles:

Key equation:
$$N^2 = \frac{8\pi^6}{3} \rho = \frac{8\pi^6}{45} \cdot \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_* T^4$$

$$H \approx 1.66 \cdot \sqrt{g_*} \cdot \frac{T^2}{M_{\text{Pl}}}$$

~~$g = \dots$~~ E

EW PT $\rightarrow g_* = 106.75$

10 MeV $\rightarrow g_* = 10.75$

Today $|_{SM} \rightarrow g_* = 3.36$

$$g_* = \sum_i g_{B_i} + \frac{7}{8} \sum_i g_{F_i}$$

$$H = 0.7 \text{ s}^{-1} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{g_*}{10.75}} \cdot \left(\frac{T}{\text{MeV}} \right)^2$$

$t_{EW} \approx 10^{-10} \text{ s}$ //

$t_{QCD} \approx 10^{-4} \text{ s}$ //

$t_{MeV} \approx 1 \text{ s}$ //

Key quantity: entropy density

$$S = \frac{E + p - \mu n}{T}$$

This comes from the 1st law: $dE = TdS - pdV + \mu dN$
applied to densities $\rho = \frac{E}{V}$ $n = \frac{N}{V}$ $s = \frac{S}{V}$
then:

$$dV[-\rho - p + sT + \mu n] = V[d\rho - Tds + \mu dn]$$

apply it for $dV \neq 0$ [the eq is valid for any system]
and then reapply it to find the formula for s .

For the case of $\mu=0$ and in thermal equilibrium
one can find that $s \cdot a^3 = \text{constant}$.

the key is to use $\frac{dp}{dT} = \frac{\rho + p}{T}$ (only in TE)

$$S = \frac{4\pi^2}{90} T^3 g_{*S} = \frac{8}{3} \frac{E}{T}$$

This is very useful because it means we should normalise
it for conserved quantities.

Examples: today: $\eta_B \equiv \frac{n_B}{n_\gamma} \approx 6.1 \times 10^{-10}$.

In the early Universe we will then have:

$$\eta_B|_a = \eta_B|_2 \times \frac{g_{*S2}}{g_{*S1}} \quad \text{at EW} \quad \eta_B \approx 27$$

similarly for the dark matter abundance.

$$g_{*S} T^3 a^3 = \text{const} \quad \text{at } T \ll m_e \Rightarrow T g_{*S} a^3 = \text{const}$$

Neutrino Decoupling and temperature of the CNB

Neutrinos and e^+e^- stop interacting at $T \approx 1\text{ MeV}$
this is above me and means that e^+e^- only heated
up the γ fluid. Not the neutrino one.

Using entropy conservation we can easily solve
for T_γ/T_0 . Entropy is separately conserved
in both sectors:

$$S_{\gamma 1} a_1^3 = S_{\gamma 2} a_2^3$$

$$S_{\nu 1} a_1^3 = S_{\nu 2} a_2^3$$

Taking their ratio we get
and taking $T_2 = T_0 = T_\gamma$

$$\frac{g_\gamma \frac{7}{8}}{g_\gamma + g_e \frac{7}{8}} = \left(\frac{T_0}{T_\gamma}\right)^3 \frac{g_\gamma \frac{7}{8}}{g_\gamma} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{T_\gamma}{T_0}\right)^3 = \frac{g_\gamma + g_e \frac{7}{8}}{g_\gamma} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{T_\gamma}{T_0} = \left(\frac{2 + 7/2}{2}\right)^{1/3} = \left(\frac{11}{4}\right)^{1/3} \approx 1.402 //$$

The CNB is colder than the CMB!

Today

$$g_* = 2 + 6 \cdot \frac{7}{8} \left(\frac{4}{11}\right)^{4/3} = 3.36 //$$

$$g_*^S = 2 + 6 \cdot \frac{7}{8} \left(\frac{4}{11}\right) = 3.94 //$$

But critically we can now define:

$$N_{\text{eff}} \equiv \frac{8}{7} \left(\frac{11}{4}\right)^{4/3} \left[\frac{\rho_{\text{rad}} - \rho_\gamma}{\rho_\gamma} \right] \quad \text{in the SM} \approx 3.04 //$$

We can now express its contribution to N_{eff} from
^{neutrinos}
any relic:

$$\Delta N_{\text{eff}} = \frac{8}{7} \left(\frac{11}{4} \right)^{4/3} \cdot \frac{f_{\text{BSM}}}{g_{\text{SM}}}$$

~~T_{BSM}~~ $a^3 S_{\text{BSM}} = \text{constant}$. Hence: ~~$T_{\text{BSM}}/2$~~

Taking a temperature $T_{\text{eq}} = T_{\text{BSM}} = T_\gamma$ one then
finds: $\left(\frac{T_{\text{BSM}}}{T_\gamma} \right)^3 = \frac{g_{\text{SM}}^{\text{SM}}(T_\gamma)}{g_{\text{SM}}^{\text{SM}}(T_{\text{eq}})}$ valid for $T_\gamma < T_{\text{eq}}$

and therefore:

$$\Delta N_{\text{eff}} = \frac{8}{7} f^{\text{BE/FD}} \left(\frac{11}{4} \right)^{4/3} \cdot \frac{g_{\text{BSM}}}{2} \left[\frac{g_{\text{SM}}^{\text{SM}}(T_\gamma)}{g_{\text{SM}}^{\text{SM}}(T_{\text{eq}})} \right]^{4/3} //$$

for a sterile neutrino thermal at $T \approx 10 \text{ MeV}$:

$$f^{\text{BE/FD}} = \frac{7}{8} \quad g_{\text{BSM}} = 2$$

$$\frac{g_{\text{SM}}^{\text{SM}}(T_0)}{g_{\text{SM}}^{\text{SM}}(T_{\text{eq}})} = \frac{2 + 6 \cdot \left(\frac{7}{8} \right)^{4/3} \left(\frac{11}{4} \right)^{4/3}}{2 + 6} = \frac{3.9}{10.75}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta N_{\text{eff}} = 1 //$$

Interactions and their Rates

Consider the $1+2 \rightarrow 3+4$ process. Then the rate of interaction for 1 is: $\Gamma_1 = n_2 \langle \sigma v \rangle_{1+2 \rightarrow 3+4}$

Lets apply this to two cases:

$e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$:  $\alpha \equiv \frac{e^2}{4\pi} = \frac{1}{137}$

$$\sigma \approx \frac{\alpha^2}{s} \text{ (by dimensional analysis and for } s \gg m_e^2)$$

at $T \gg m_e$ then $v_e \approx 1$ and one gets

$$\langle \sigma v \rangle \approx \frac{\alpha^2}{T^2} \text{ because } s = 2E_{cm}^2$$

$$n \sim T^3 \text{ and one gets } \Gamma \approx \alpha^2 \cdot T$$

One needs to compare this with the Hubble expansion rate in order to understand if the process σ is efficient or not.

$$N_{int} \approx \frac{\Gamma}{H} \approx \frac{T}{z} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{if } \frac{\Gamma}{H} \gg 1 \rightarrow \text{Thermal equilibrium} \\ \text{if } \frac{\Gamma}{H} \ll 1 \rightarrow \text{out of equilibrium} \end{array}$$

In a Radiation dominated Universe we get

$$\frac{\Gamma}{H} \approx \alpha^2 \frac{M_{Pl}}{T}$$

this means those processes are active
at least at $T \lesssim \alpha^2 M_{Pl} \approx \cancel{10^{19} \text{ GeV}}$
 $\approx 10^{14} \text{ GeV}$

In addition at $T = 1 \text{ MeV}$ $\frac{\Gamma}{H} \approx 10^{70}!$

$\Rightarrow$ EM interactions are highly efficient indeed
in the early Universe. Main reason we
considered equilibrium thermodynamics

The neutrino case

$$e^+e^- \rightarrow \nu\bar{\nu} : \sigma \approx G_F^2 s \quad \cancel{G_F} \quad E \ll M_W$$

$$\text{then } \langle \sigma v \rangle \approx G_F^2 T^2 \quad \Gamma \approx G_F^2 T^5$$

comparing it with Hubble we get

$$T_{dec} \approx 2-3 \text{ MeV} \leftarrow \text{Neutrino Decoupling}$$

Key things to remember from lectures I and II

The early Universe is governed by relativistic particles.

$$H \approx 1.66 \cdot \sqrt{g_*} \cdot \frac{T^2}{M_{\text{Pl}}} \quad M_{\text{Pl}} = 1.22 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ GeV}$$

$g_* \equiv$ degrees of freedom in ~~a~~ radiation.

Entropy density is conserved in thermal equilibrium or in the absence of interactions.

$$s = \frac{2\pi^2}{45} T^3 \cdot g_{*s} \rightarrow \text{degrees of freedom contribution to radiation in the form of entropy}$$

$$g_{*s|0} \approx 3.91$$

$$g_{*|0} \approx 3.36$$

$$\text{at } T \gg 100 \text{ GeV } g_* = g_{*s} = 106.75$$

Relativistic particles have $\langle E \rangle \approx 3T$

$$\text{and } \rho \propto T^4 \quad n \propto T^3$$

Non-relativistic ones are reduced exponentially:

$$n \approx g \left(\frac{mT}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} e^{-\frac{mT}{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-\frac{m}{T}} \leftarrow \text{key!}$$

$$\frac{\rho}{\mu} \gg 1 \quad \text{Equilibrium}$$

$$\frac{\rho}{\mu} \approx 1 \quad \text{Out of equilibrium.}$$

EM interactions are very efficient: $\frac{\Gamma}{H} \approx 10^{20} \text{ at MeV}$

also: even with tiny couplings

a thermal population of particles may have been produced! Very stringent BSM constraint!

Lecture III

The Liouville equation: Collision term

$$\frac{df}{dt} = C[f]$$

f : distribution function

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} \frac{dp}{dt} = C[f]$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} - H_p \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} = C[f]$$

$\frac{dp}{dt} = -H_p$ from: the geodesic eq:

$$\frac{dx^m}{ds^2} + \Gamma^m_{\alpha\beta} \frac{dx^\alpha}{ds} \frac{dx^\beta}{ds} = 0$$

Upon integration over $g_i \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3}$ one gets:

$$\frac{dn_i}{dt} + 3H n_i = \int g_i C[f] \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \equiv \frac{S_n}{dt}$$

and upon integrating over $g_i E \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3}$ one gets:

$$\frac{d\rho_i}{dt} + 3H(\rho_i + p_i) = \int C[f] E g_i \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \equiv \frac{S_\rho}{dt}$$

Want to explore the simplest cases for the processes:



decays and inverse decays.



annihilations (and inverse annihilations).

concentrating on $1+2 \leftrightarrow 3+4$ processes we have:

$$C[f_0] \equiv -\frac{1}{2E_s} \cdot \frac{1}{g_0} \sum_{\text{all spin states}} \int d\pi_2 d\pi_3 d\pi_4 (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4)$$

$$S \times \left[f_1 f_2 [1 \pm f_3] [1 \pm f_4] |M_{1+2 \rightarrow 3+4}|^2 - f_3 f_4 [1 \pm f_1] [1 \pm f_2] |M_{3+4 \rightarrow 1+2}|^2 \right]$$

$$d\pi_i \equiv \frac{d^3 \vec{p}_i}{2E_i (2\pi)^3} \quad \text{Lorentz invariant phase space density}$$

$S \equiv$ Symmetry factor $\times \frac{1}{2!}$ for each pair of initial or final state particles and $\times 2$ for each pair of initial state ones.

end result is: $S = \frac{1}{2}$ for final state particles and that's it which are identical:

- This agrees with Cordoba and Gellman

but also with Volgar [hep-ph/10202122](#) and [hep-ph/9703345](#)

+ is for bosons

- is for fermions

$$a^\dagger |n\rangle = \sqrt{n+1} |n+1\rangle$$

$$a^\dagger |n\rangle = \sqrt{1-n} |n+1\rangle$$

← Kinetic Theory
Wagoner '78

M is the matrix element of a given process. Typically calculated in perturbation theory as: $iM = \langle \text{out} | iR | \text{in} \rangle$

$R = \text{Lagrangian}$

Things to note:

1): In the presence of stationary ~~and~~ efficient interactions stationary solutions to the Liouville equation

$\frac{df}{dt} = 0$ represent thermal equilibrium configurations

If T invariance is respected, this is most easily seen as it requires:

$$f_1 f_2 [1 \pm f_3] [1 \pm f_4] - f_3 f_4 [1 \pm f_1] [1 \pm f_2] = 0$$

which will only be true if $T_1 = T_2 = T_3 = T$

and if $\mu_1 + \mu_2 = \mu_3 + \mu_4$

↗ Kinetic / Thermal equilibrium.

↖ Chemical equilibrium.

2) In most scenarios quantum statistical factors will not be important. They represent <20% corrections to the rates.

E.g. $n + \bar{\nu}_e \leftrightarrow p + e^-$ 5%
 $\bar{\nu}_e \leftrightarrow e^+ e^-$ 10% etc.

Then things simplify greatly and one has:

$$\frac{dn_s}{dt} + 3Hn_s = - \sum_{\text{spins}} dT_1 dT_2 dT_3 dT_4 (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4)$$

$$\times |M|^2 S \cdot [f_1 f_2 (1 \pm f_3)(1 \pm f_4) - f_3 f_4 (1 \pm f_1)(1 \pm f_2)]$$

Ignoring statistical factors $\rightarrow$

$$G = |M|^2 S [f_1 f_2 - f_3 f_4]$$

writing it as MB functions $\rightarrow$

$$G = |M|^2 S \left[e^{\frac{\mu_1}{T}} e^{\frac{\mu_2}{T}} e^{-\frac{E_1 + E_2}{T}} - e^{\frac{\mu_3}{T}} e^{\frac{\mu_4}{T}} e^{-\frac{E_3 + E_4}{T}} \right]$$

$\uparrow$ Because $E_1 + E_2 = E_3 + E_4$

We can then relate this to the cross section

remember: $d\sigma \equiv \frac{1}{2E_A 2E_B} \frac{1}{|v_A - v_B|} \prod_f d\Omega_f |M(A+B \rightarrow f)|^2 (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(p_A + p_B - \sum p_f)$

Furthermore noting that $e^{\frac{\mu_i}{T}} \equiv \frac{n_i}{n_i^{(0)}}$ where $n_i^{(0)}$ is the number density without ga chemical potential

Putting everything together one then finds:

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

Saha type equation

show formula on the slides

Further comments:

- 3) We clearly see now that $\Gamma = n_2 \langle \sigma v \rangle$ and that it compares directly with H
- 4) If the net change of particles is small compared with the particle production and destruction rates then we are in thermal equilibrium and these things should vanish.
Detailed balance: it allows to relate backward and forward rates.

Example: QCD axion production in the early Universe:

$$L = \frac{g_s^2}{32\pi^2} \frac{a}{f_a} \cdot G_{\mu\nu}^2$$

solves the strong CP problem and leads to

$$V(a) \approx \frac{f_a^2 m_\pi^2}{2} \left(1 - \cos\left(\frac{a}{f_a}\right) \right)$$

$$m_a f_a = m_\pi f_\pi$$

$$m_\pi = 130 \text{ MeV} \\ f_\pi \approx 130 \text{ MeV}$$

Main production mechanism:

$$\pi\pi \rightarrow \pi a \quad \text{relevant for } T \lesssim 300 \text{ MeV}$$

Rate: $\Gamma \approx 10^{-3} \frac{1}{(fa)^2} T^5 //$ diLuzio et al
2201.05073.

Comparing $\frac{\Gamma}{H} \gtrsim 1$ one gets:

$$T_{ex} \approx 300 \text{ MeV for } fa \gtrsim 10^8 \text{ eV}$$

in other words: $m_\nu \lesssim 0.2 \text{ eV}$

Finally, one can rewrite the equation in a simpler form:

$$\frac{dn_\nu}{dt} + 3Hn_\nu = -\langle \Gamma \rangle (n_\nu - n_\nu^{eq}) - \langle \sigma v \rangle (n_\nu^2 - n_\nu^{2eq})$$

$$Y_\nu \equiv \frac{n_\nu}{s} \Rightarrow \text{if } s \text{ is conserved one finds}$$

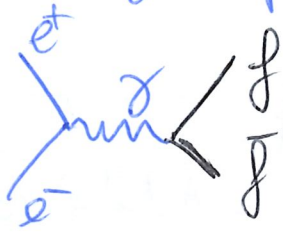
$$\frac{dY_\nu}{dt} = -\langle \Gamma \rangle (Y_\nu - Y_\nu^{eq}) - \langle \sigma v \rangle (Y_\nu^2 - Y_\nu^{2eq})$$

it is very convenient to rewrite this as a function of Temperature. This leads to:

$$\frac{dY_\nu}{dT} = \frac{\langle \Gamma \rangle}{HT} (Y_\nu - Y_\nu^{eq}) + \frac{\langle \sigma v \rangle}{HT} (Y_\nu^2 - Y_\nu^{2eq})$$

Another example:

Multicharged particles see e.g. hep-ph/0004079



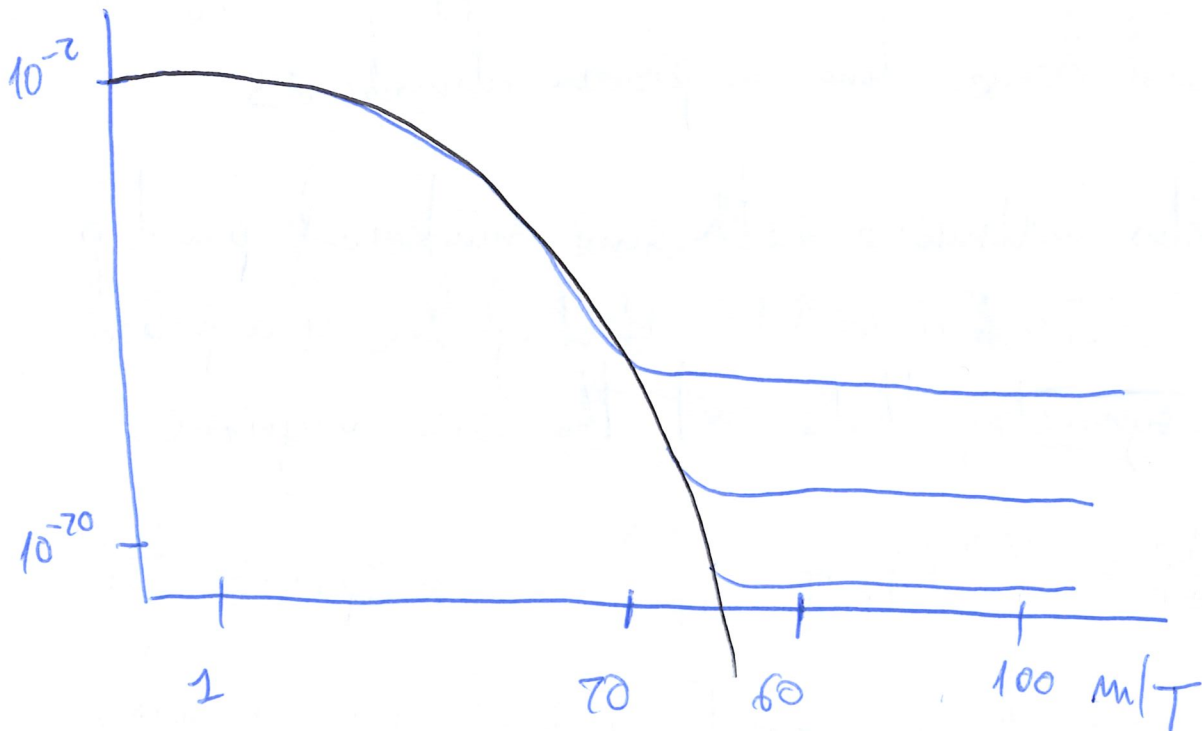
$$e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma \quad \Gamma_2 \propto \alpha'^2 T$$

$$\text{hence } \alpha' < 10^{-20} \text{ g} \in 10^{-10}!$$

The WIMP case:

$$\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = -\langle\sigma v\rangle (n_\chi^2 - n_\chi^{\text{eq}^2})$$

$$\frac{dY}{dT} = \frac{5\langle\sigma v\rangle}{H \cdot T} (Y_\chi^2 - Y_\chi^{\text{eq}^2})$$



Instantaneous freeze-out approximation:

$$\Gamma_2 H \simeq n_\chi \langle\sigma v\rangle \Rightarrow Y_\chi \simeq \frac{H}{5\langle\sigma v\rangle} \Big|_{\text{at freeze out}}$$

$$\Omega_{DM} h^2 = 0.1 \times \frac{30}{30} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{85}}{95/g_0} \cdot \frac{2.2 \cdot 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}}{\langle \sigma v \rangle}$$

Recall that $\rho_0 = 2900 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ $\rho_{DM} = 19 \cdot 10^{-29} \text{ g/cm}^3$
 $= 1 \cdot 10^4 \text{ eV/cm}^3$

$$Y_B = 8.7 \cdot 10^{-11}$$

$$Y_{DM} = 8.7 \cdot 10^{-11} \times 5.3 \times \frac{m_p}{m_{DM}}$$

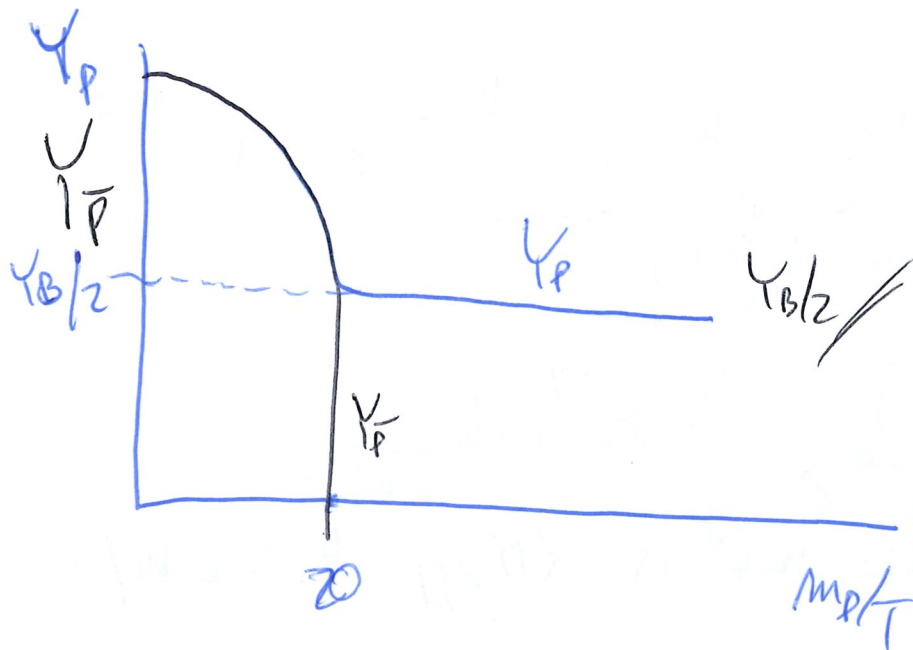
$$2.2 \cdot 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s} \simeq 2.57 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ GeV}^{-2} \simeq \frac{g^2}{M_W^2} \text{ (WIMP miracle)}$$

on the other hand, particles interacting strongly would have: $\sigma \simeq \frac{4}{3} \pi R^2 \simeq \frac{1}{m_{\pi}^2} \simeq 0.016 \text{ GeV}^{-2}$
 and hence tiny a priori abundances.

Consider a universe with same number of p and $\bar{p}$
 then $\Omega_{ph} \simeq 10^{-9}$! But if there is a particle asymmetry that's not the case anymore.

$$\frac{dY_{\bar{p}}}{dT} = \frac{\langle \sigma v \rangle}{HT} (Y_p Y_{\bar{p}} - Y_{\bar{p}}^{\text{eq}}) \quad \text{since } Y_p \text{ is constant}$$

$Y_{\bar{p}}$ decays exponentially fast over temperature after p dominates.



Considerations: Stable particles which do not interact strongly enough will have $\Omega_{\text{dark}}^2 > 0.12$.

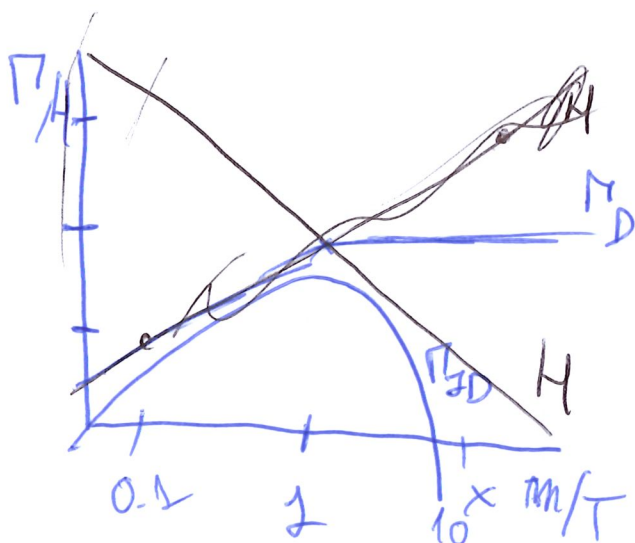
Remember it is very easy to produce particles in the early Universe!

lets consider the case of a decaying particle X

$$\frac{dY_X}{dT} = - \frac{\langle \Gamma \rangle}{HT} (Y_X - Y_X^{eq})$$

$\uparrow$ decay $\nwarrow$ finite decay

what matters the most is $\langle \Gamma \rangle/H$ at $T \approx m_X/3$



$$\Gamma_D \approx \frac{\Gamma_X}{\frac{1}{\Gamma_X} + \frac{m}{\sigma m}} - \frac{m_X}{T}$$

$$\Gamma_{XD} \approx \Gamma_D \cdot e^{-\frac{m_X}{T}}$$

Let's consider this particle can decay into
Baryons and anti-baryons violating
B number and at different rates:

Then:

$$\frac{dY_B}{dt} = \langle \Gamma_X \rangle (Y_X - Y_X^{eq}) - \Gamma_{B\text{-breaking}} Y_B$$

Hence $\frac{\Gamma_X}{H}$ needs to be small

$Y_X - Y_X^{eq}$ needs to be $\neq 0$! (out of equilibrium)
ad ofc B violation

Sakharov conditions:

- * Violating C and CP
- * Violating B number
- * Out of equilibrium.

Baryogenesis via decays is by far the simplest.

Imagine $\Gamma(X \rightarrow B) - \Gamma(X \rightarrow \bar{B}) = \Gamma_X \epsilon$

Then if the particle decays out of equilibrium one can do a simple estimate if X dominates the

Universe: $Y_B = Y_X \cdot \epsilon$ at $T = T_{RH}$

corresponding to $\rho_X \approx \rho_{rad}$

$Y_X \approx \frac{\rho_{rad}}{m_X s} \approx \frac{3 T_{RH}}{4 m_X}$

$m_X \cdot Y_X s = \rho_{rad}$

$Y_B \approx \epsilon \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{T_{RH}}{m_X}$

Case: leptogenesis $m_X \approx 10^9 \text{ GeV}$ $T_{RH} \approx 10^9 \text{ GeV}$

$\epsilon \leq \frac{3}{8\pi} \frac{M_\Delta (m_3 - m_1)}{v_H^2}$

hence $M_\Delta > 10^8 \text{ GeV!}$

Davidson
Izawa
band.

But remember that any B violating interaction in thermal equilibrium will erase any asymmetry.

Finish with the overall description of the
usual BSM bounds.