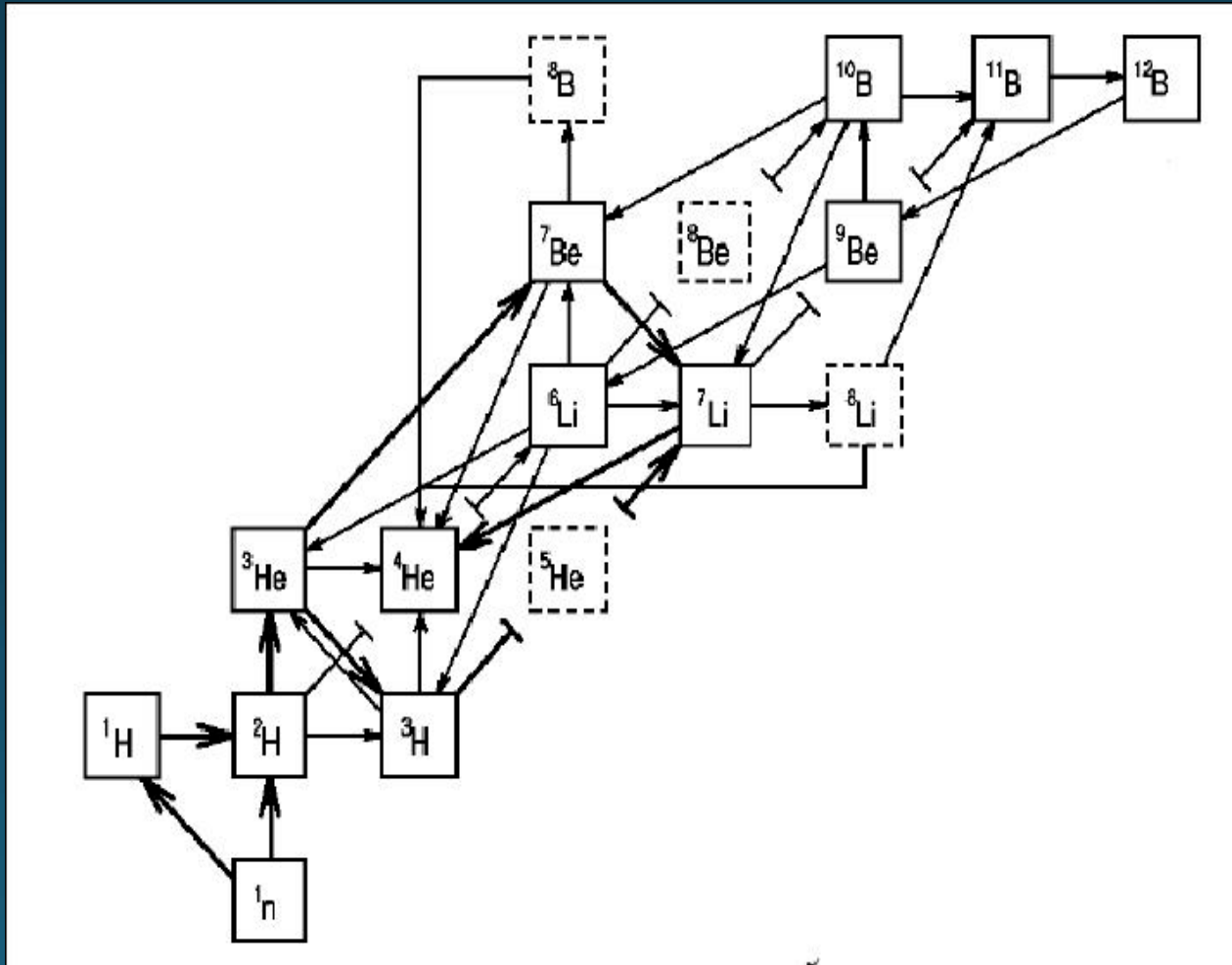


Cosmology 1FA209, 2017

Lecture 8: The early Universe



About the format of the literature report

Minimum 3
pages!

Suggested
structure:
Introduction
“Main text”
Discussion
Conclusion
References

Alternative Theories of Gravity

— In Relation to Dark Matter

Introduction

Before Einstein introduced General Relativity, physics had been based on Newton's law of gravity for 200 years. In the later years, however, difficulties arose because Newton's laws were insufficient to explain the orbit of Mercury. A few physicists then proposed the idea of a planet inside the orbit of Mercury, which would be hard to detect because of its closeness to the sun, and which would in turn explain the peculiarities of Mercury's orbit. When Einstein's theory of General Relativity later explained the orbit, the idea of another planet was quickly laid to rest. Today, scientists are facing this same problem, which is the need to introduce undetected matter (dark matter) all over the Universe to explain the way it behaves. To this day the only proof of dark matter is its gravitational effect, which are seen in, amongst other places, the discs of spiral galaxies and in the behaviour of galaxy clusters. A portion of the scientists are therefore trying to find and prove alternative theories of gravity where there is no need for this extra, dark matter.

On the other hand, it is easy to find an example of when scientists introduced extra matter in order for gravity to behave like it was observed to do, and they actually found the matter. This is exactly how Neptune was predicted before there were any means to observe it directly. The dark matter case is a lot more complicated than the discovery of Neptune, since it is matter very difficult to detect.

This is an ongoing debate between scientists today—dark matter or no dark matter? General relativity or another theory? Studying alternative theories of gravity is certainly no easy task and to have a theory with no dark matter requires a lot of work and thought. There are many ongoing

There are, on the other hand, also problems with this theory. Firstly it is not a relativistic theory, and cosmological observations require such a theory. For instance, MOND does not predict the gravitational lensing that has been observed, and which General Relativity does predict. This is, on the other hand, relatively easy to solve by introducing a vector field (which is what lead to TeVeS, discussed more in detail below) [2,4]. It also does not explain the behaviour of galaxy clusters well, which is a major issue present for many, if not all, alternative theories of gravity [5].

Going from MOND to the previously mentioned TeVeS was not done in one step. The early attempts to broaden MOND into an relativistic theory were quickly disregarded, either by tests or by incompatibility to the known physics of today. It was finally done by J. D. Bekenstein, after generalizing a theory by R. H. Sanders [2]. TeVeS gravity stands for Tensor-Vector-Scalar gravity, and is precisely that, a theory of gravity which has parts of tensor, scalars and vectors, and thereby is a relativistic theory.

TeVeS approximates to MOND in the weak acceleration limit [2], which is comparable to how General Relativity approximates to the Newtonian gravity here on Earth. Another major likeness is the fact that TeVeS can predict more than MOND can, much the same way there is a lot General Relativity can predict, which the Newtonian gravity can not. It predicts, as mentioned earlier, gravitational lensing, and it can also be shown that TeVeS is compatible with the basic observations of the Universe known today [2,7].

Use bracket-number (e.g. [3]) or
author-year (e.g. Zackrisson et al. 2017)
format for references in text

References

- [1] Clifton, T. Ferreira, P. G., Pdailla, A., Skordis, C. (2011). "Modified Gravity and Cosmology". arXiv:1106.2476v2
- [2] Skordis, C. (2009). "The Tensor-Vector-Scalar theory and its cosmology". arXiv:0903.3602v1
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- [6] Magalhaes Batista, C. E., Zimdahl, W. (2010). "Power-law solutions for TeVeS". arXiv:0912.3483v2
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- [9] Moffat, J. W., (2011). "Modified Gravity Or Dark Matter?". arXiv:1101.1935v2
- [10] Toth, V. T., (2011). "Cosmological consequences of Modified Gravity (MOG)". arXiv:10115174v2
- [11] Haghi, H. Rahva, S. (2010). "Observational Constraints on the Modified Gravity Model (MOG) Proposed by Moffat: Using the Magellanic System" arXiv:1002.3136v1
- [12] Moffat, J. W., (2006). "Gravitational Lensing in Modified Gravity and the Lensing of Merging Clusters without Dark Matter". arXiv:astro-ph/0608675v1
- [13] Moffat, J. W., (2006). "A Modified Gravity and its Consequences for the Solar System, Astrophysics and Cosmology". arXiv:gr-qc/0608074v2
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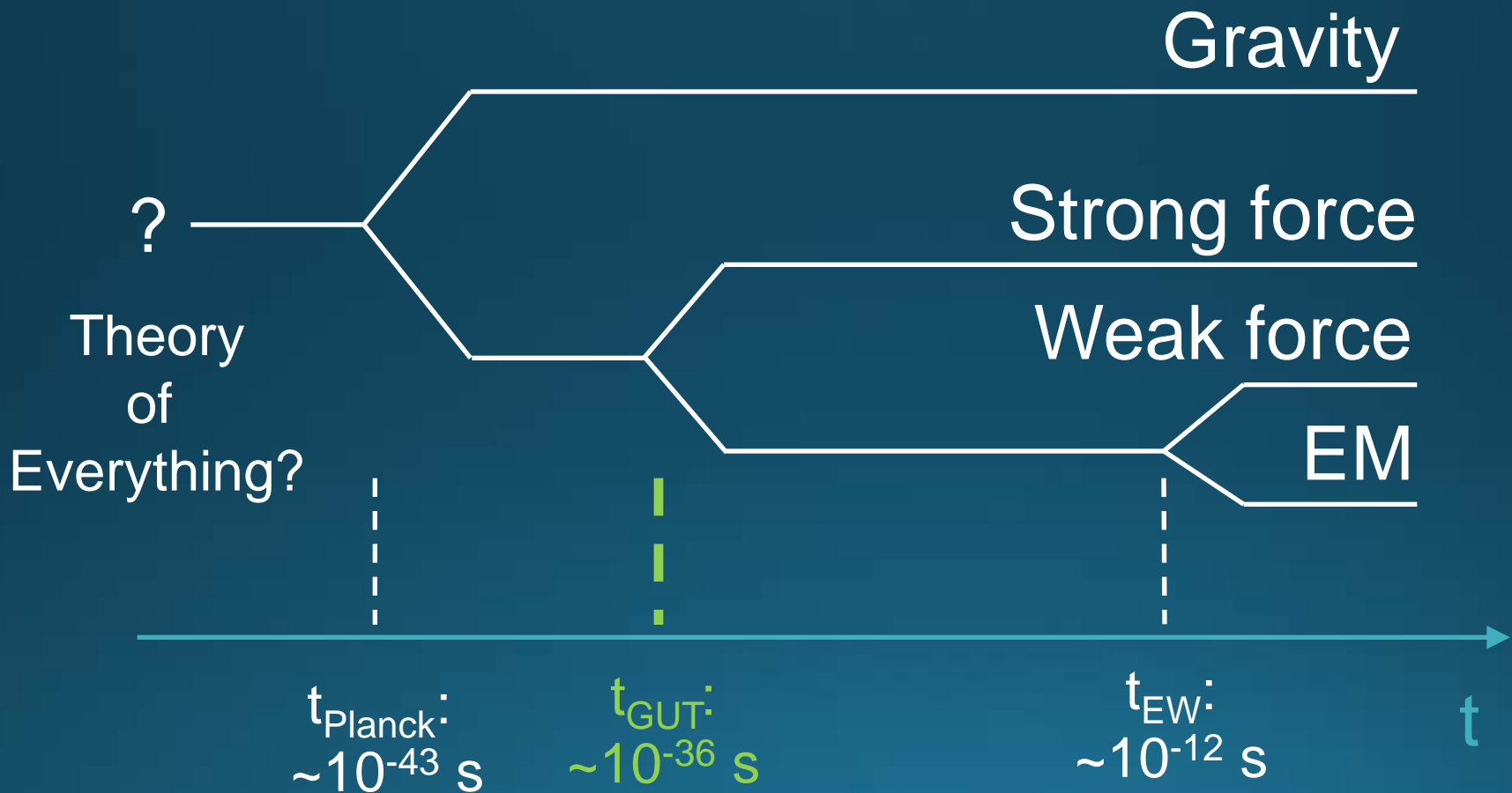
Reference list at the end – including at least:
author(s), year, journal, journal number, page.
Sometimes, article name and preprint number is also listed.
Please try to avoid using web pages as references!

Outline

- Grand unification
- Cosmic inflation
- Origin of the elements
- Big Bang Nucleosynthesis
- Measuring elemental abundances

Covers chapters 9 & 10 in Ryden

Grand Unification



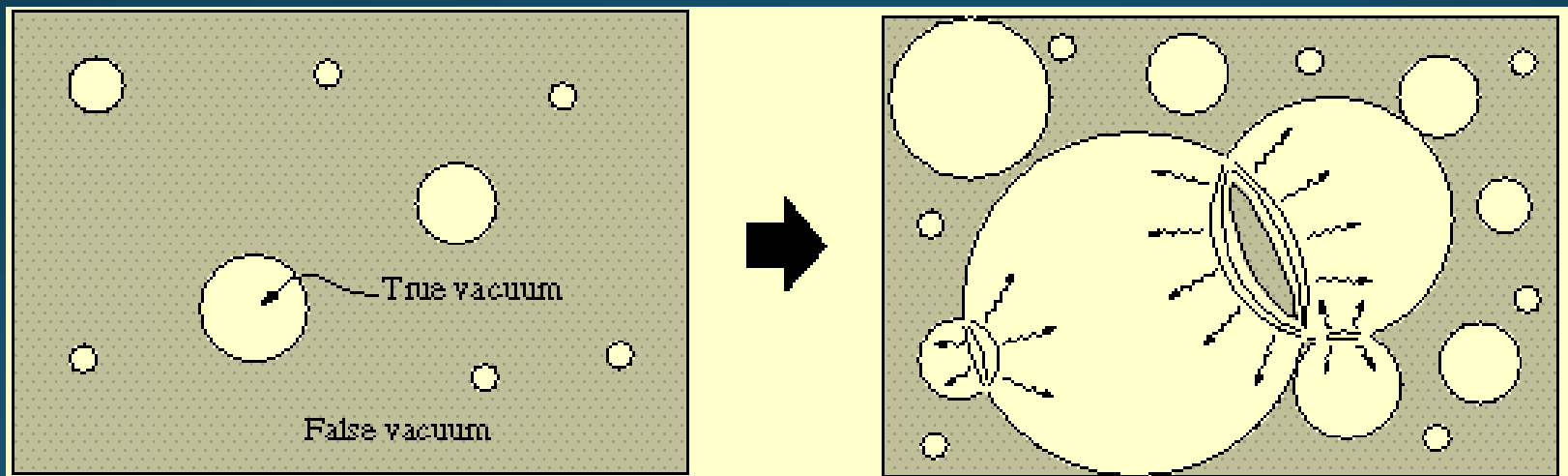
Grand Unification II

- Electroweak unification experimentally confirmed in late 1970s → Nobel prize in physics to Maxwell, Weinberg, Salam & Glashow for electroweak theory
- GUT happens at $E_{\text{GUT}} \sim 10^{12}$ TeV
- LHC reaches ~ 10 TeV → Experimental confirmation of GUT is not gonna happen soon...

Phase Transitions

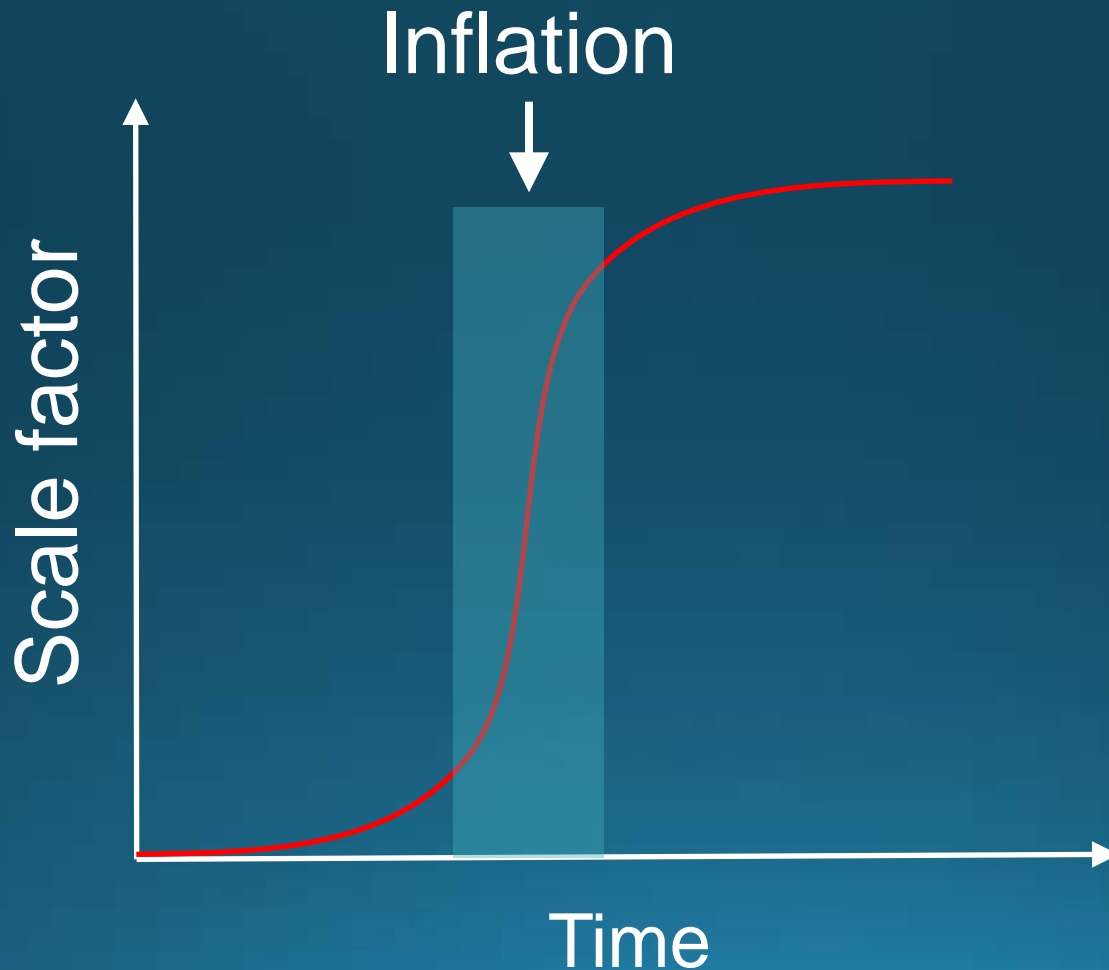
The Universe underwent a phase transition
when the temperature dropped below $T_{\text{GUT}} \sim 10^{28}$ K
Symmetry between strong and electroweak force lost \rightarrow
Topological defects!

Many GUT scenarios produce magnetic monopoles
with $mc^2 \sim 10^{12}$ TeV



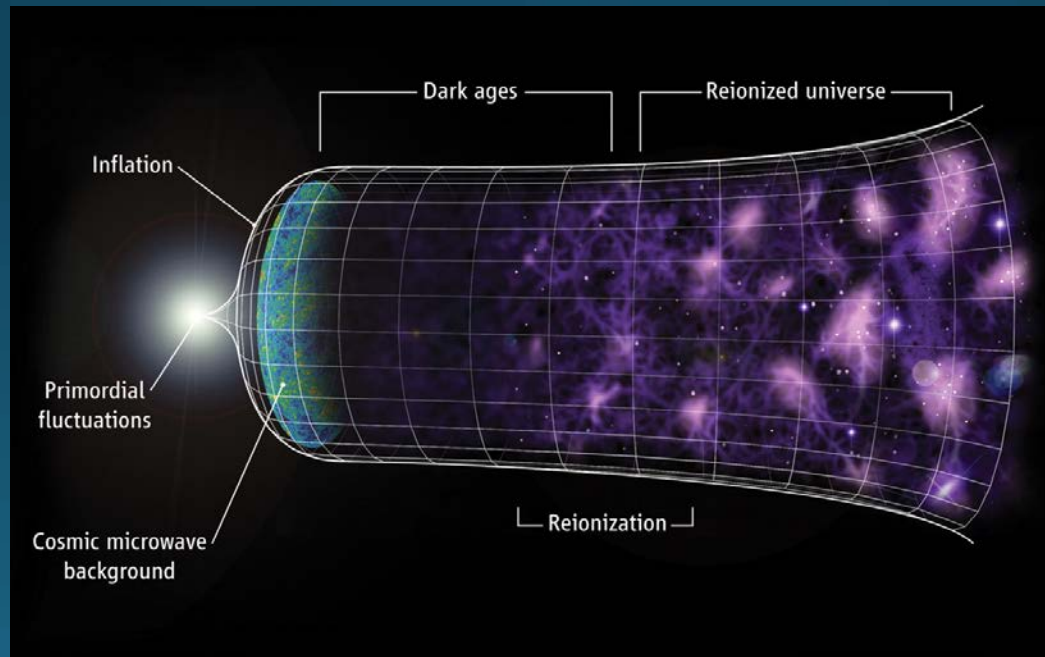
What is cosmic inflation?

A short period of fast expansion, happening very early in the history of the Universe



Why do we need inflation?

- To solve:
 - Flatness problem
 - Horizon problem
 - Magnetic monopole problem
- To provide the seeds for structure formation



The flatness problem I

Observationally :

$$|1 - \Omega_0| \leq 0.1$$

One can show that this implies, at the Planck time :

$$|1 - \Omega_{\text{Planck}}| \leq 10^{-60}$$

Hence, if the Universe is close to flat now,
it was extremely close to flat in the past.

Why is the Universe so close to flat?
If this is a coincidence, it very, very improbable!

The horizon problem I

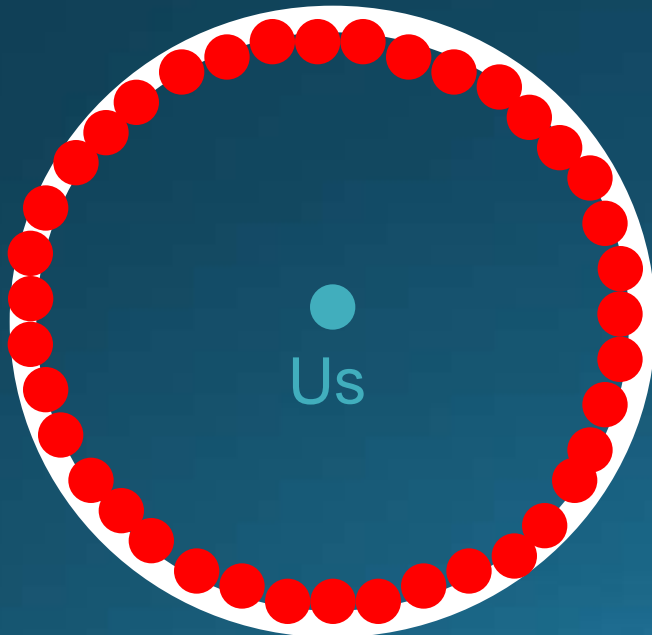
Last scattering surface



How can the CMBR be almost completely isotropic, when opposite sides of the sky have never been in casual contact?

The horizon problem II

$$\theta_{\text{hor}} = \frac{d_{\text{hor}}(t_{\text{ls}})}{d_{\text{A}}} \approx \frac{0.4\text{Mpc}}{13\text{Mpc}} \approx 2 \text{ degrees}$$



● Regions in causal contact
~20000 patches in the CMBR sky

The magnetic monopole problem I

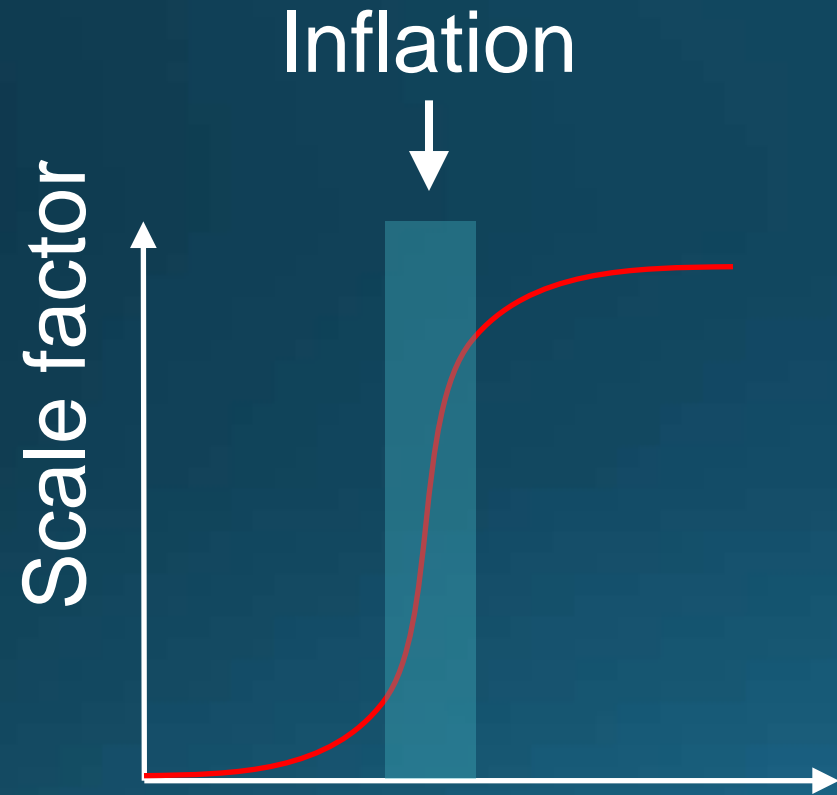
Magnetic monopoles: zero-dimensional objects which act as isolated north or south poles of a magnet

Many GUT models predict huge numbers of these! While subdominant at creation, they would soon come to dominate the energy density of the Universe

Problem: No such objects have ever been observed!

Where are the magnetic monopoles?

When did inflation occur?



One possible model:

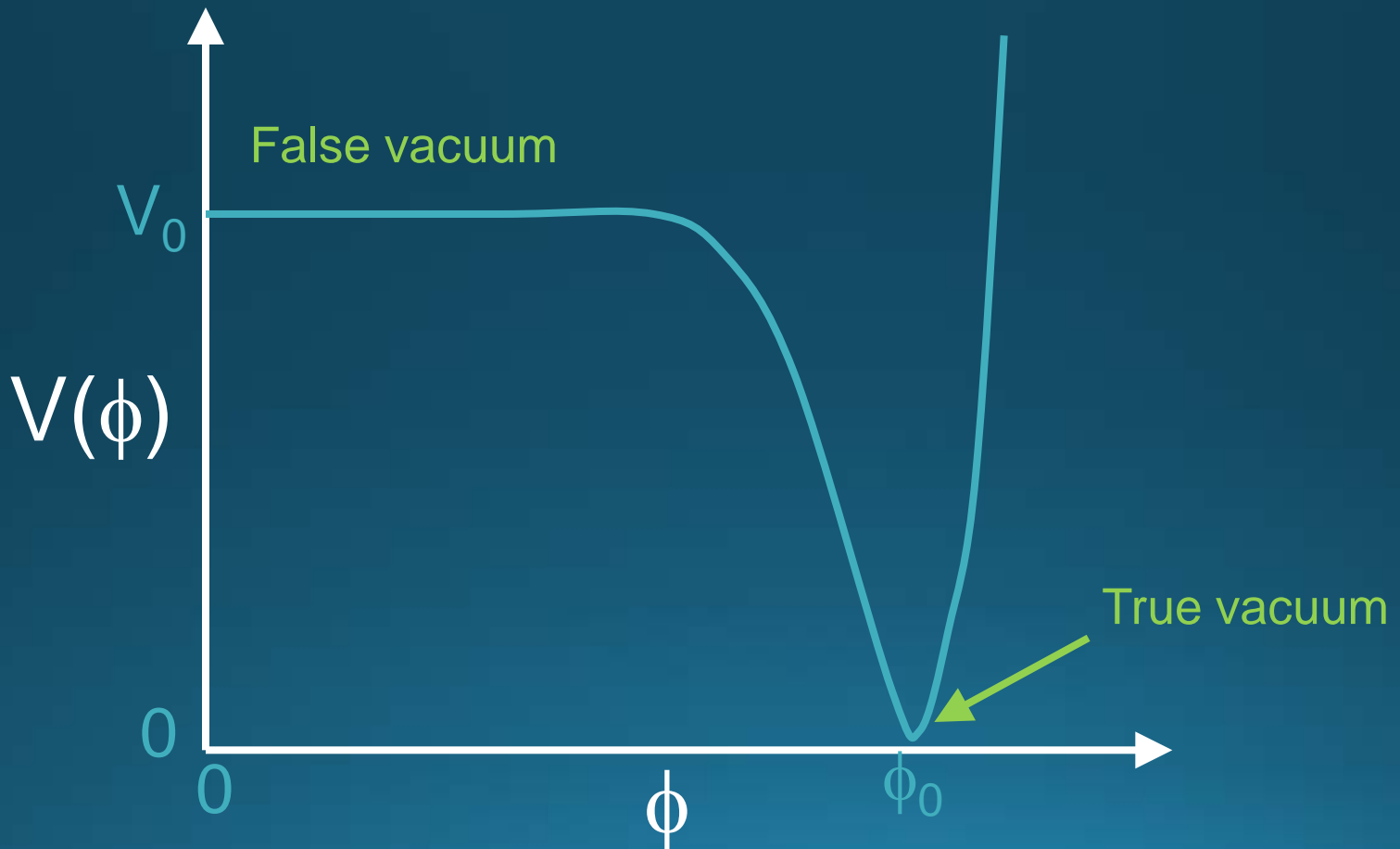
$t_{\text{start}} \sim 10^{-36}$ s after the Big Bang

$t_{\text{stop}} \sim 10^{-34}$ s after the Big Bang

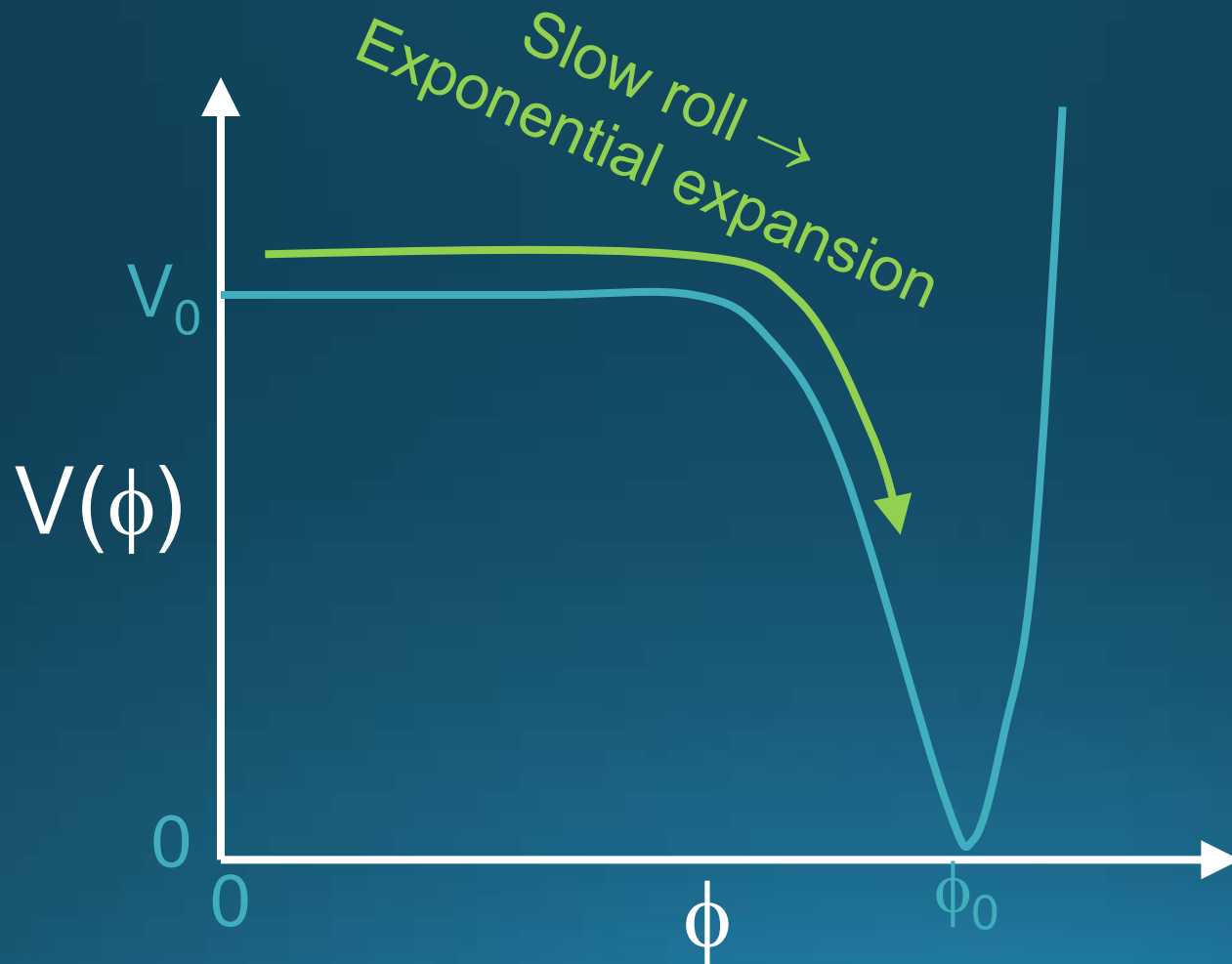
$a(t_{\text{stop}})/a(t_{\text{start}}) \sim e^{100} \sim 10^{43}$

The inflaton field I

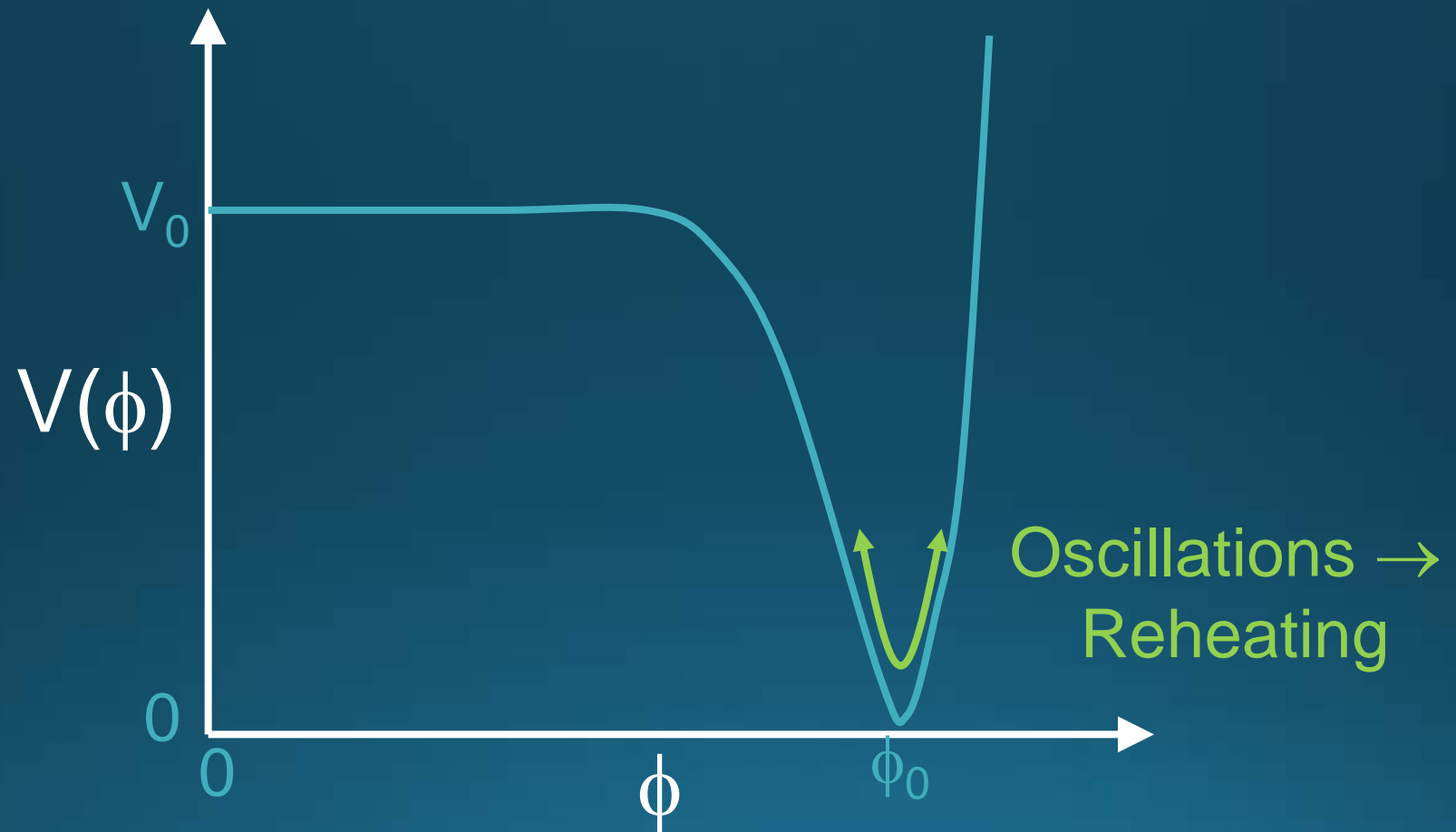
Consider a scalar field $\phi(r,t)$ with potential energy $V(\phi)$



The inflaton field II



The inflaton field III



Reheating

If the Universe expands by a factor of $\sim e^{100} \rightarrow$
Temperature drops by e^{-100}
and the radiation energy density gets extremely small

How come it's not small after inflation then?

Oscillations of ϕ around $\phi_0 \rightarrow$
Some of the energy of the inflaton field are
being carried away by radiation
These photons *reheat* the Universe
Hence, no shortage of photons after inflation!

Slow-roll

$$\varepsilon_{\phi} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{hc^3} \dot{\phi}^2 + V(\phi)$$

$$P_{\phi} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{hc^3} \dot{\phi}^2 - V(\phi)$$

Slow roll:

$$\dot{\phi}^2 \ll hc^3 V(\phi) \Rightarrow$$

$$\varepsilon_{\phi} \approx -P_{\phi} \approx V(\phi)$$

Negative pressure!
 Λ -like expansion!
de Sitter phase!

Seeds for structure formation



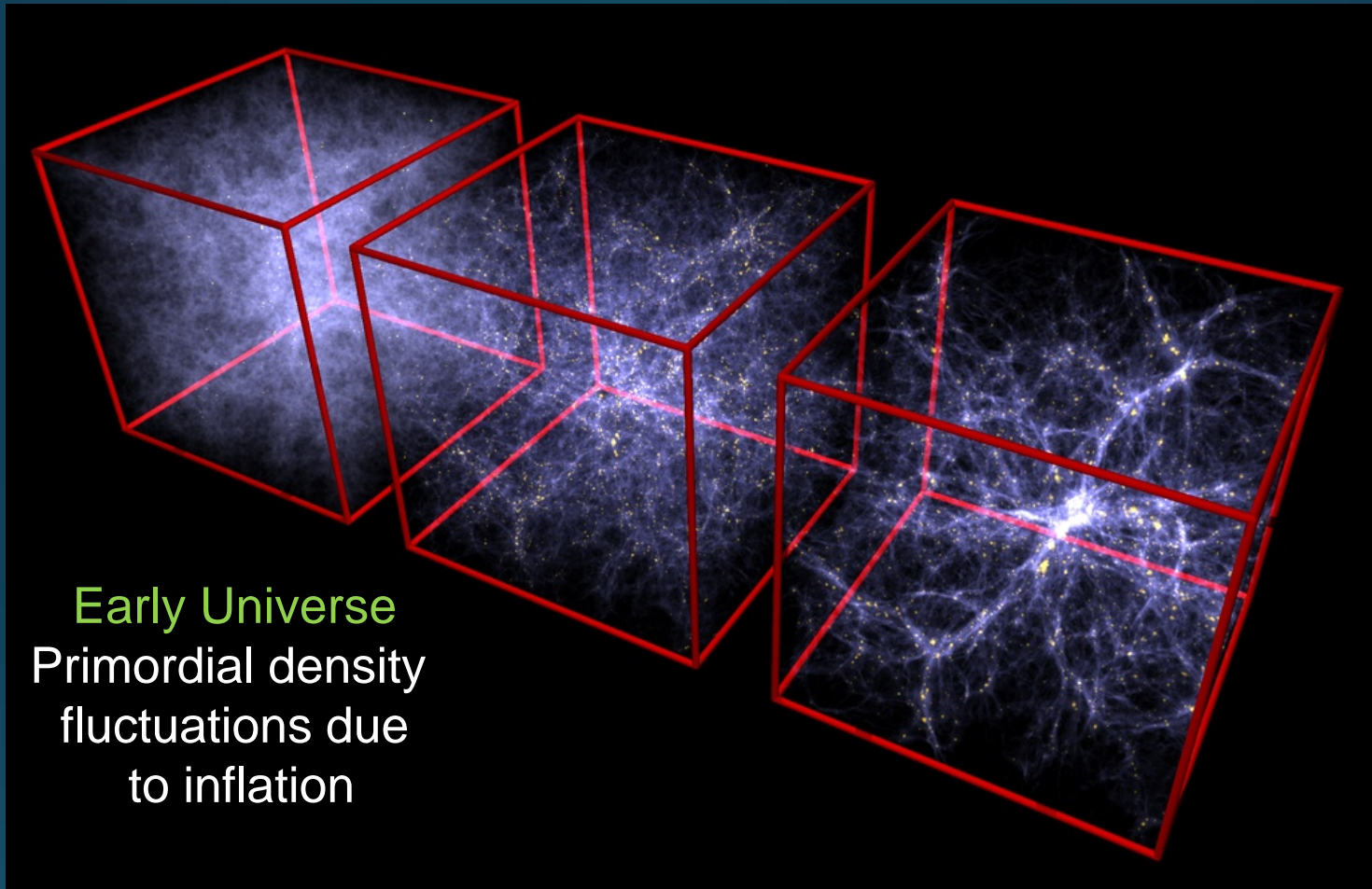
Prior to inflation:

Microscopic quantum fluctuations
Virtual particles created and annihilated

After inflation:

Quantum fluctuations blow up
to macroscopic scales
act as seeds for structure formation

Seeds for structure formation II



Early Universe
Primordial density
fluctuations due
to inflation

Current Universe
Primordial seeds have
generated very
complicated structure

Inflation as a solution to the flatness problem I

The acceleration equation:

$$\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = -\frac{4\pi G}{3c^2}(\varepsilon + 3P)$$

During inflation, the Universe is temporarily dominated by a component with $P < -\varepsilon/3$ (i.e. $w < -1/3$), giving positive acceleration.

One often assumes a *cosmological constant* $\Lambda_{\text{inflation}}$ to be responsible.

Note: This constant is very different from the Λ driving the cosmic acceleration today.

$$\Lambda_{\text{inflation}} \sim 10^{107} \Lambda \dots$$

Inflation as a solution to the flatness problem II

Hubble parameter and scale factor during inflation:

$$H_{\text{inflation}} = \left(\frac{\Lambda_{\text{inflation}}}{3} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$a(t) \propto e^{H_{\text{inflation}} t}$$

Number of e-foldings during inflation:

$$N = H_{\text{inflation}} (t_{\text{stop}} - t_{\text{start}})$$

$$N \sim 100$$

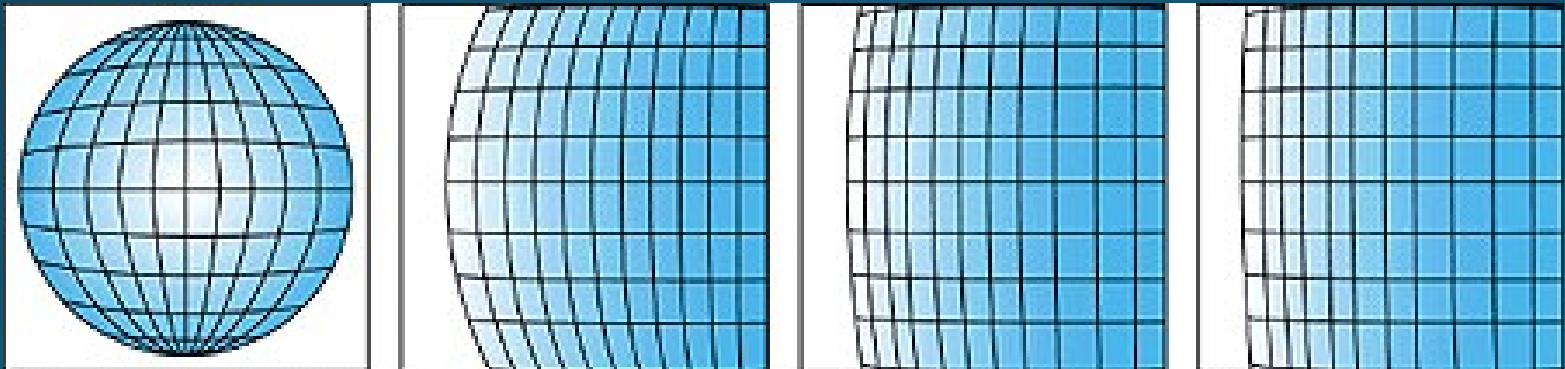
Inflation as a solution to the flatness problem III

$$\left|1 - \Omega(t_{\text{stop}})\right| = e^{-2N} \left|1 - \Omega(t_{\text{start}})\right|$$

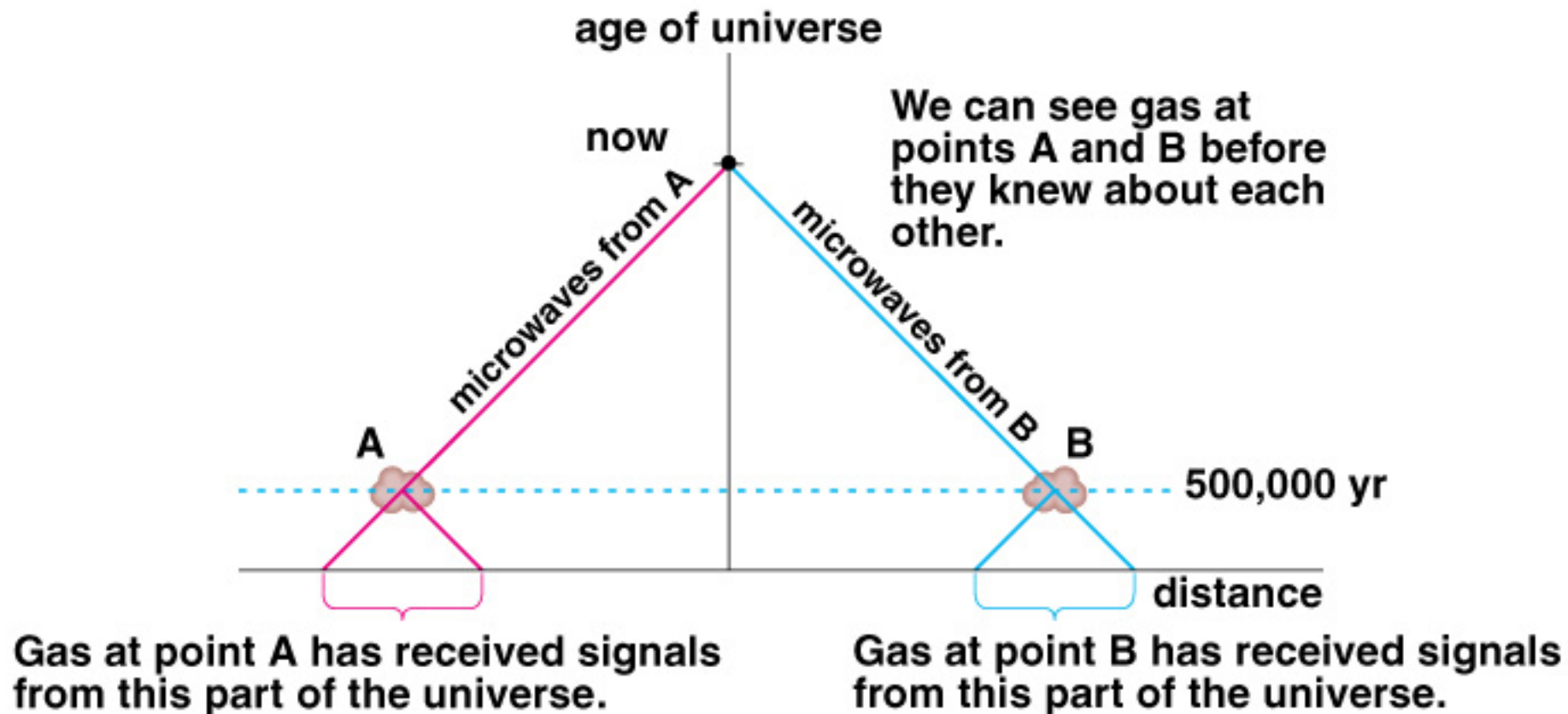
Example:

$$\left|1 - \Omega(t_{\text{start}})\right| \approx 1 \Rightarrow \left|1 - \Omega(t_{\text{stop}})\right| \approx 0$$

Inflation can effectively make a curved Universe flat!

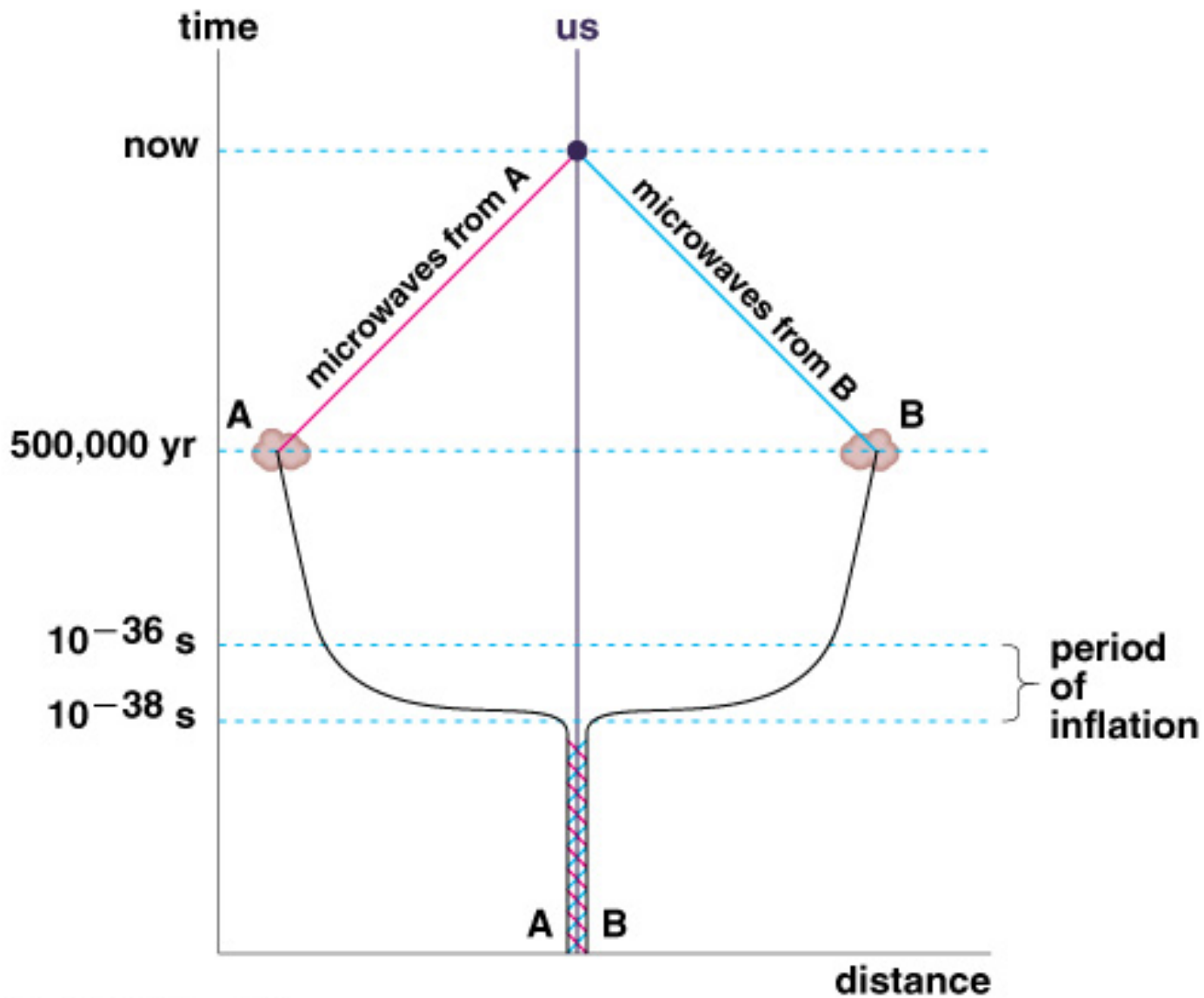


Inflation as a solution to the horizon problem I



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The horizon problem



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The solution

Inflation as a solution to the horizon problem II

Horizon before and after inflation:

$$d_{\text{hor}}(t_2) = c \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{dt}{a(t)}$$

Before inflation :

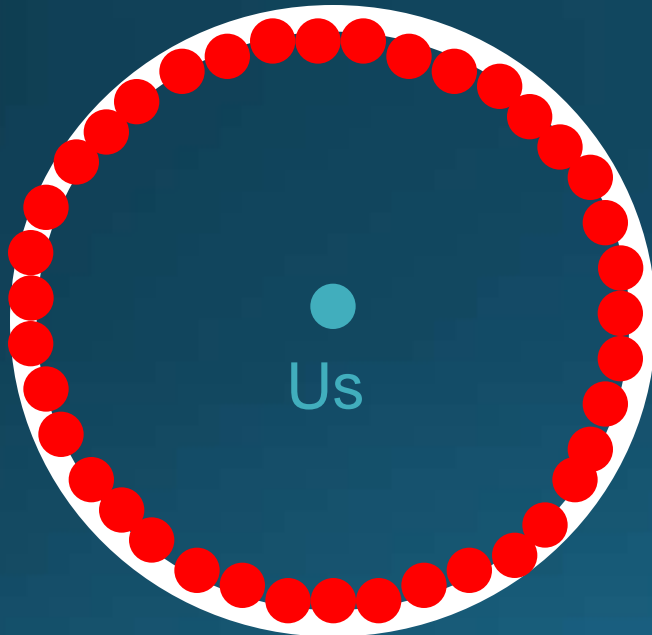
$$d_{\text{hor}} = 2ct_{\text{start}} \sim 6 \times 10^{-28} \text{ m}$$

After inflation :

$$d_{\text{hor}} \approx e^N 3ct_{\text{start}} \sim 2 \times 10^{16} \text{ m}$$

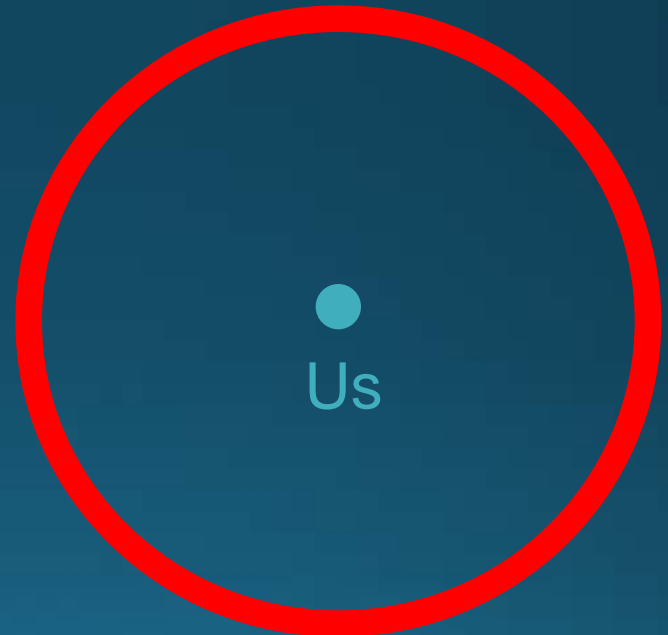
Inflation as a solution to the horizon problem IV

Without inflation



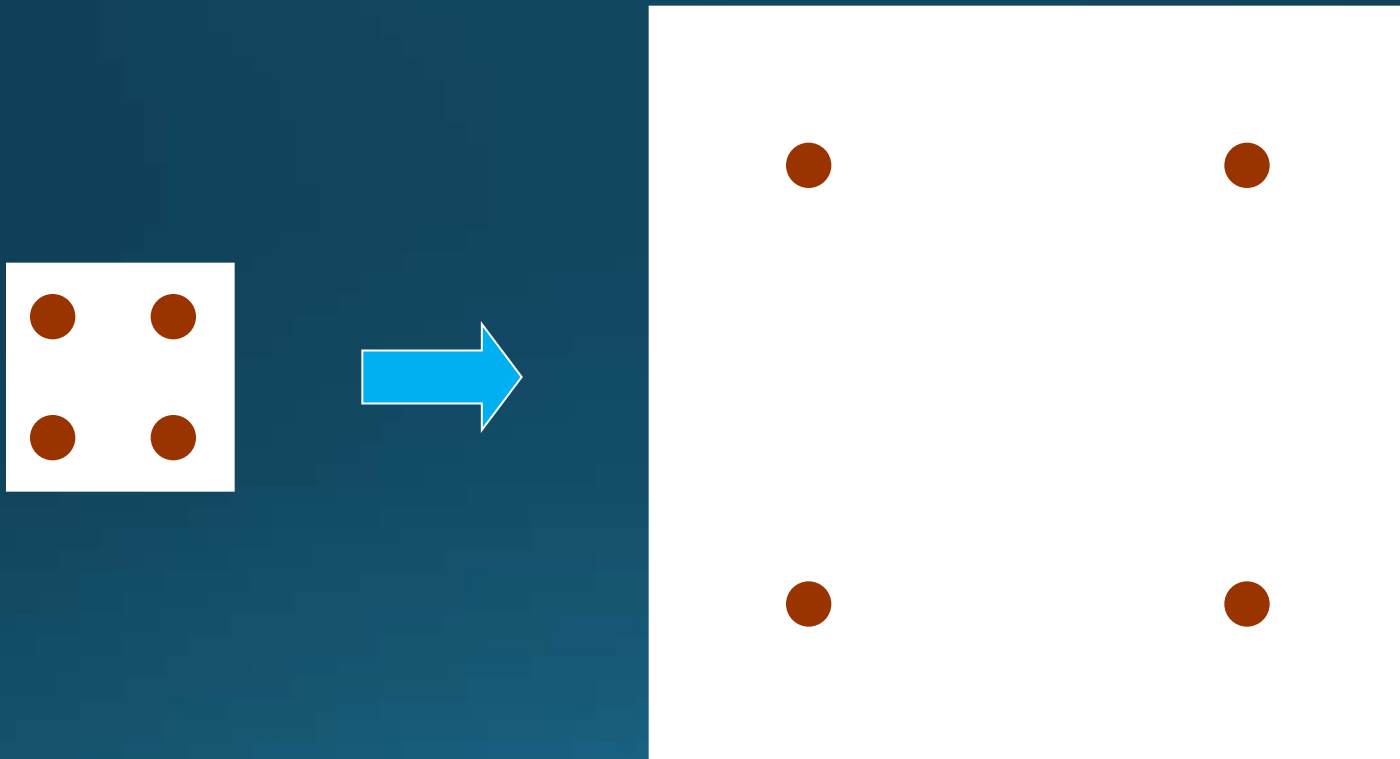
Regions in causal contact
~20000 patches in the CMBR sky

With inflation



Just one patch in the sky!

Inflation as a solution to the magnetic monopole problem I



Expansion dilutes the number densities of objects,
and inflation did this extremely efficiently

Inflation as a solution to the magnetic monopole problem II

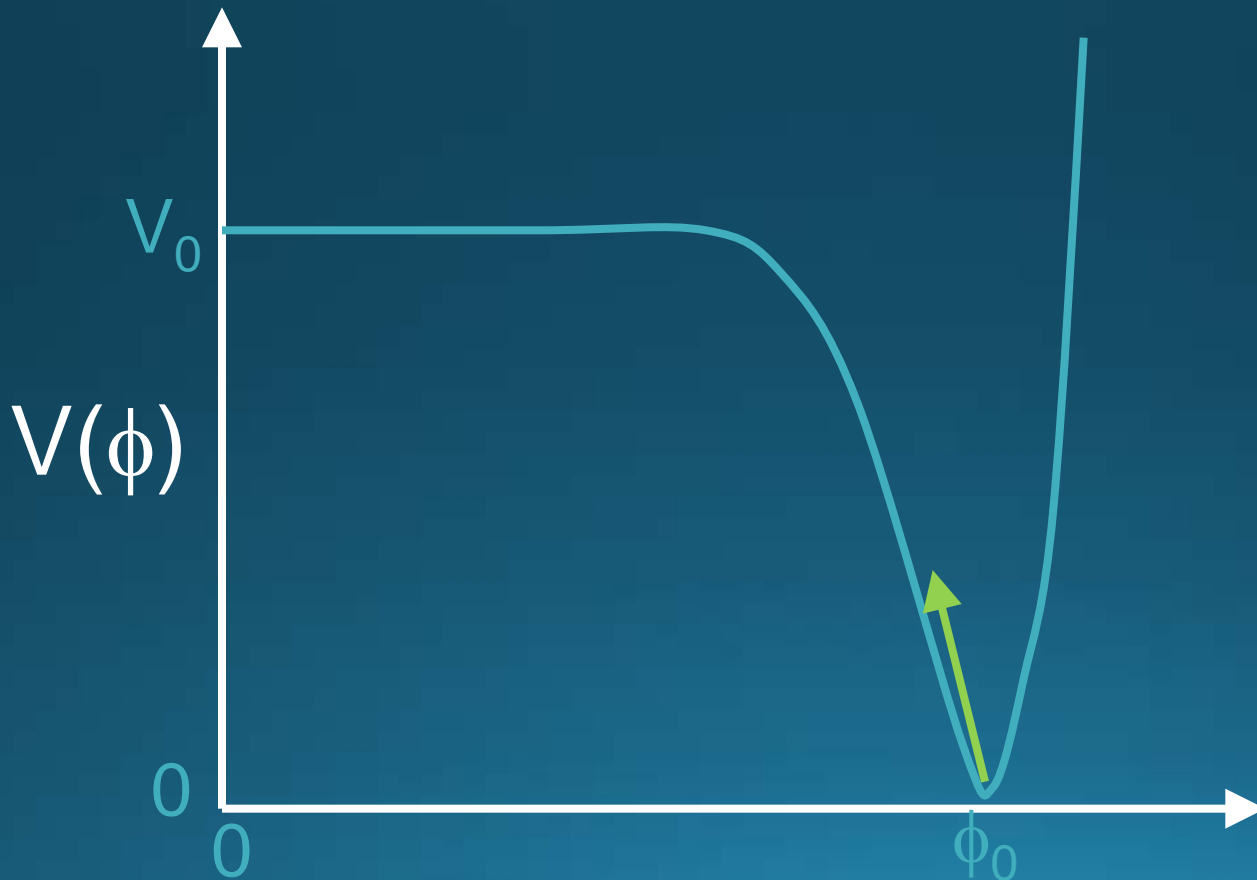
At the end of inflation :

$$n_{\text{monopoles}}(t_{\text{stop}}) \sim e^{-300} n_{\text{monopoles}}(t_{\text{GUT}})$$

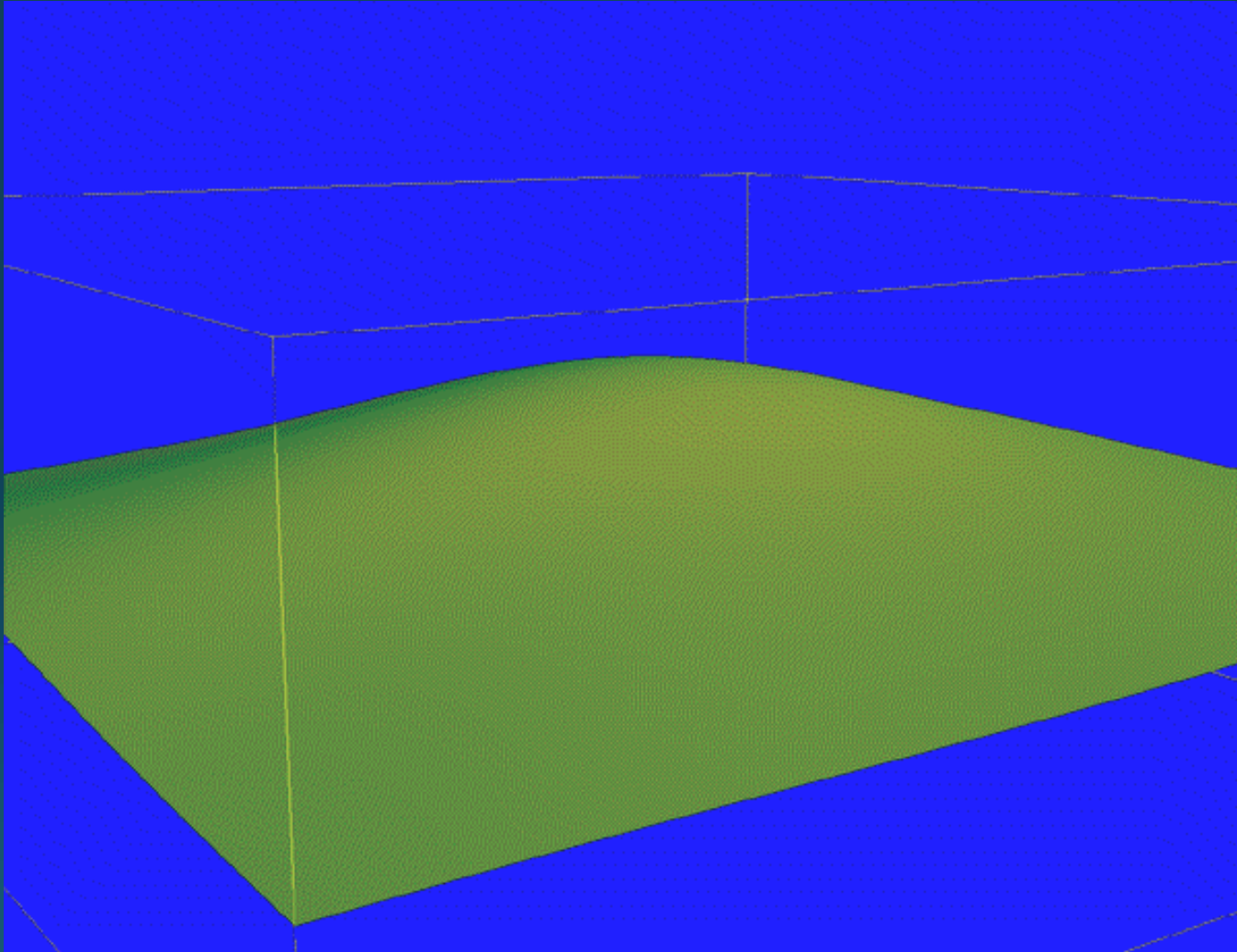
A realistic number density of monopoles at the GUT epoch would correspond to less than one monopole within the volume spanned by the last scattering surface

Eternal inflation I

Once the inflaton field has come to rest at ϕ_0 , inflation ends.
But in some regions of space quantum fluctuations can make the inflation field move up the potential again →
Some regions keep inflating

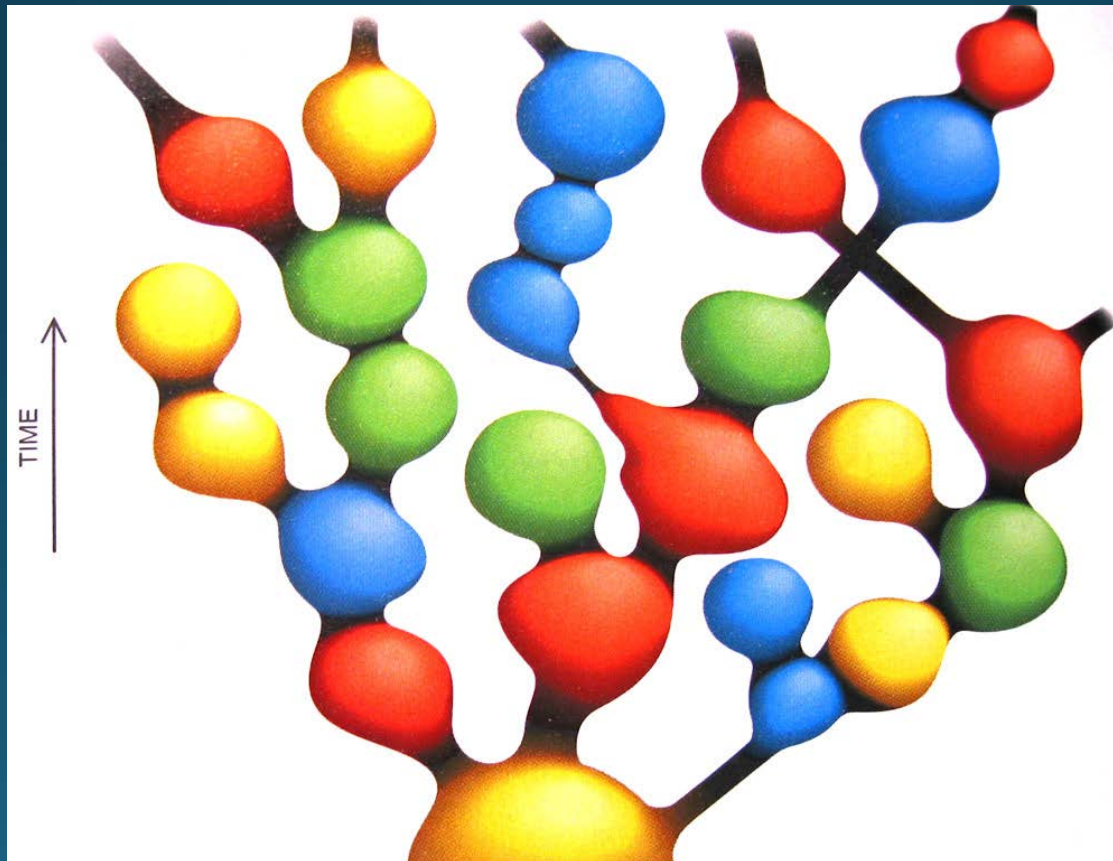


Eternal inflation II



Eternal inflation III

Differently inflated regions may end up with very different properties ('mutations') → Multiverse
Good 'genes' may promote further expansion (self-reproducing Universes).



Eternal inflation IV

- Quantum fluctuations in $\phi \rightarrow$

Future-eternal inflation

Inflation will always continue (somewhere)

- Past-eternal inflation models also exist:

Revives the perfect cosmological principle!

The interior of each inflating bubble may be described by the Big Bang theory, but the multiverse as a whole has been around forever

Stellar Black Holes

Initial mass:

$$30 < M/M_{\text{solar}}$$

Last stages:

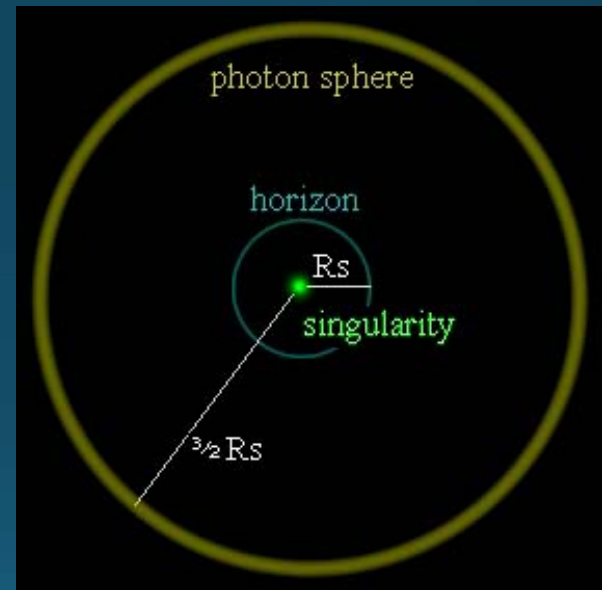
SN \rightarrow BH

Remnant mass:

$$\sim 3\text{--}20 M_{\text{solar}}$$



Supernova



Stellar Black Hole

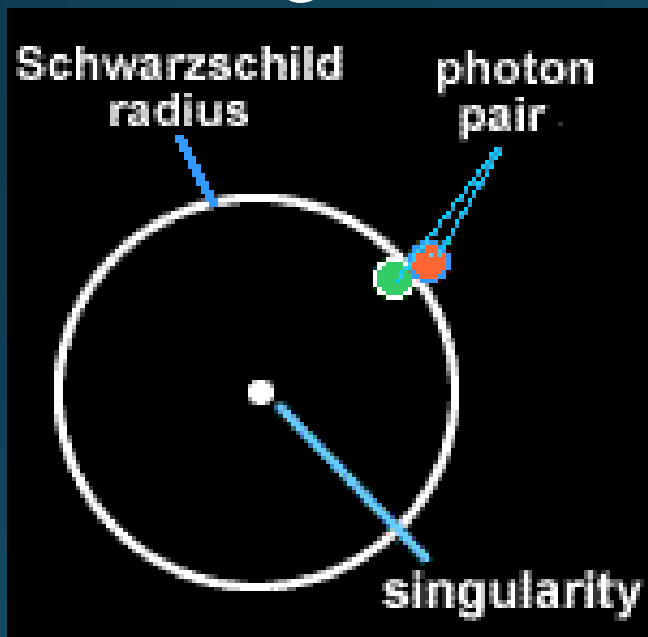
Since the progenitors of stellar black holes are baryonic,
these black holes cannot contribute much to the
matter density of the Universe

Primordial Black Holes

- High-density regions in the early Universe ($t \ll 1$ s) may collapse into primordial black holes
- PBHs could in principle form with masses from $M_{\text{Planck}} - 10^{15} M_{\text{solar}}$
- Remains a viable candidate for the cold dark matter: Ω_{PBH} could be ~ 0.3 !
- Example:
 - $M_{\text{PBH}} \sim 10^{-8} M_{\text{solar}}$ (mass of the Moon) would have a size (event horizon) of $R \sim 0.1$ mm

Primordial Black Holes II

Hawking radiation:



- Observational constraints:
 - BBNS abundances
 - Gamma-ray background
 - CMBR

$$\tau_{\text{evap}} \sim 9 \cdot 10^{-18} M^3 s$$

$$T_{\text{rad}} = \frac{hc^3}{16 \pi^2 kGM}$$

Objects with $M > 5 \times 10^{11} \text{ kg}$
would still be around!

Unclear what happens at
 M_{Planck} . Relics may form!

Intermission:
What are you looking at?



What mass fraction of the particles in your body has at some point in the past been inside a star?

- A) 1%
- B) 10%
- C) 50%
- D) 75%
- E) 90%
- F) 95%
- G) 99%

The Elements

Atomic nuclei :

Z = Number of protons

N = Number of neutrons

A = Nucleons = Mass number = $Z + N$

${}^1\text{H}$ = Normal hydrogen nucleus (proton)

${}^2\text{H}$ = Deuterium (hydrogen isotope)

${}^4\text{He}$ = Normal Helium

X, Y, Z

- X: Mass fraction of Hydrogen (most common element in the Universe).
Here, now: $X \approx 0.71$
- Y: Mass fraction of Helium (second most common element in the Universe)
Here, now: $Y \approx 0.27$
- Z: Mass fraction of all heavier elements combined. Also known as "Metallicity".
Here, now: $Z \approx 0.02$

Abundances in Astronomy

$$[A / B] = \log_{10} \left(\frac{(\text{number of A atoms} / \text{number of B atoms})_{\text{object}}}{(\text{number of A atoms} / \text{number of B atoms})_{\text{sun}}} \right)$$

- Common examples:
 - $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}]$, $[\text{O}/\text{H}]$ – These two are often carelessly referred to as ‘metallicities’
- $[\text{Fe}/\text{H}] = -1$ means that the object you’re looking at only has 10% Iron (relative to hydrogen) compared to the Sun.

The Light Elements

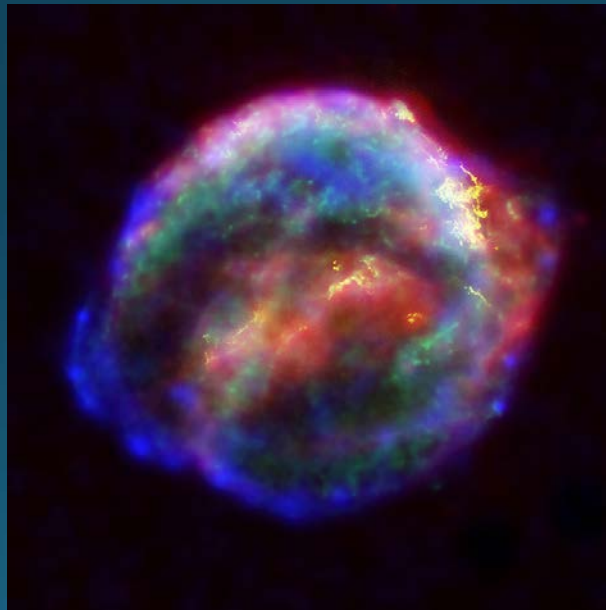
Created during Big Bang
Nucleosynthesis,
roughly in the first three minutes after
the Big Bang:

- ^2H (Deuterium, D), ^3H (Tritium)
- ^3He , ^4He
- ^6Li , ^7Li
- ^7Be , ^8Be (Unstable, decays back into Li)

Note: BBNS required to explain
abundances of ^4He and Deuterium!

The Heavy Elements

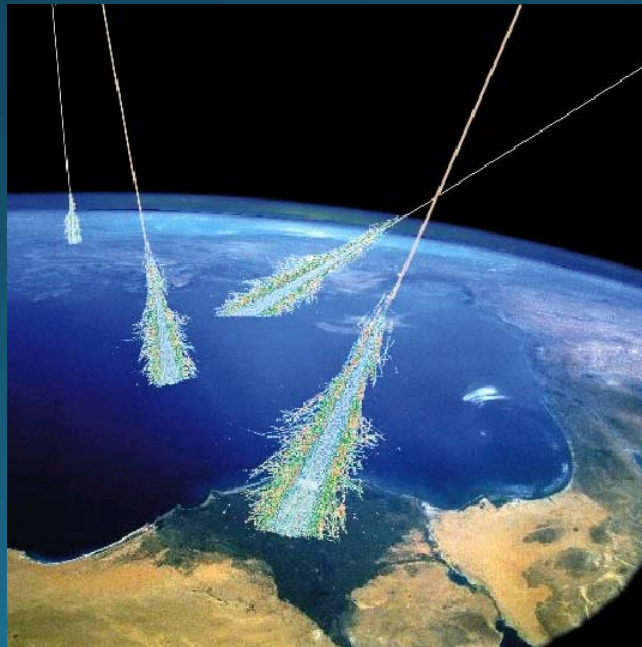
- Essentially all elements with $A > 7$ are created through
 - Stellar nucleosynthesis
 - Supernova nucleosynthesis



Fusion: $H \rightarrow He \rightarrow$ Heavier elements

Cosmic Ray Spallation

- Nucleosynthesis due to high-energy impacts of cosmic rays
- Can form ^3He + certain isotopes of Li, Be, B, Al, C, Cl, I and Ne



Important BBNS Reactions I: Proton-neutron freezeout

Consider the Universe at $t \approx 0.1$ s...

Pair production :

$$\gamma + \gamma \Leftrightarrow e^- + e^+$$

n and p are held in equilibrium with each other :

$$n + \nu_e \Leftrightarrow p + e^-$$

$$n + e^+ \Leftrightarrow p + \bar{\nu}_e$$

Neutrinos freeze out of these reactions at $t \sim 1$ s \rightarrow

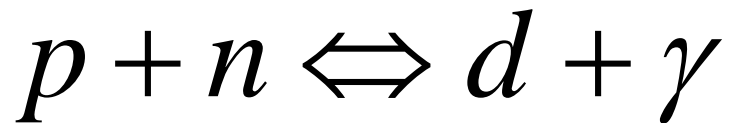
Neutron-to-proton ratio frozen at $n_n/n_p \approx 0.2$

Then follows neutron decay:

$$n \Rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$$

Important BBNS Reactions II: Deuterium and Helium synthesis

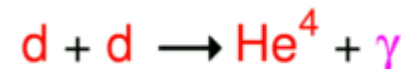
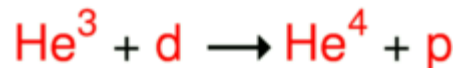
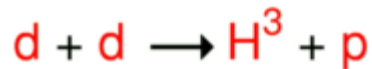
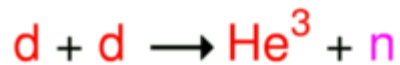
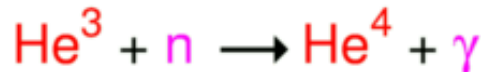
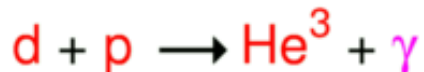
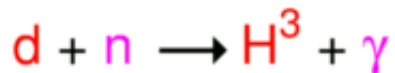
Consider the Universe at $t \approx 2\text{--}300$ s...



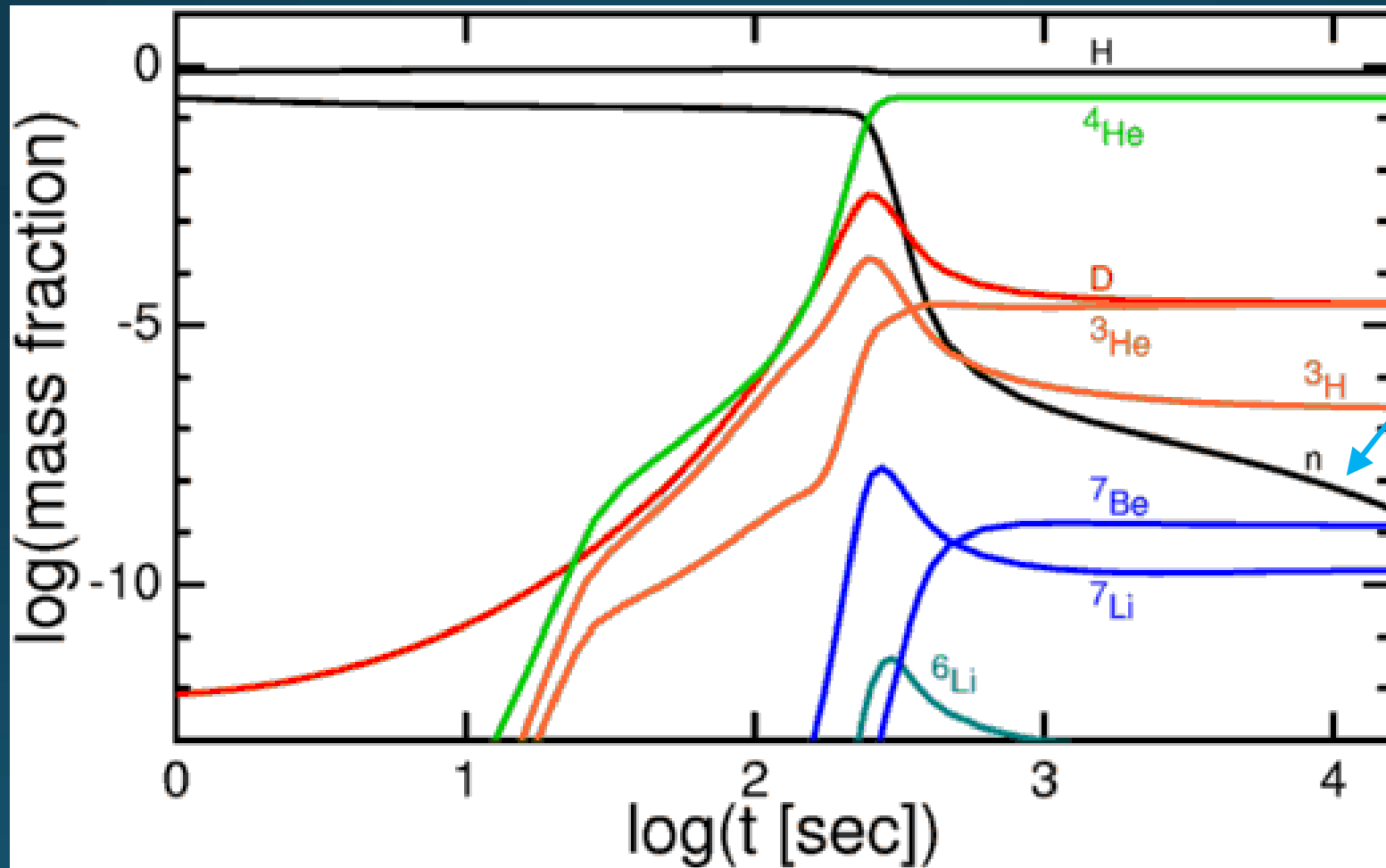
The rightward direction starts to dominate once the photon temperature has dropped below the 2.22 MeV binding energy of Deuterium.

Serious production of D does not start until $t \approx 300$ s.

Once we have Deuterium, several routes allow the formation of Helium:



The Detailed Solution



The Beryllium Bottleneck

- No stable nuclei with $A=8 \rightarrow$ Prevents formation of heavier elements during BBNS

Even though you can form :



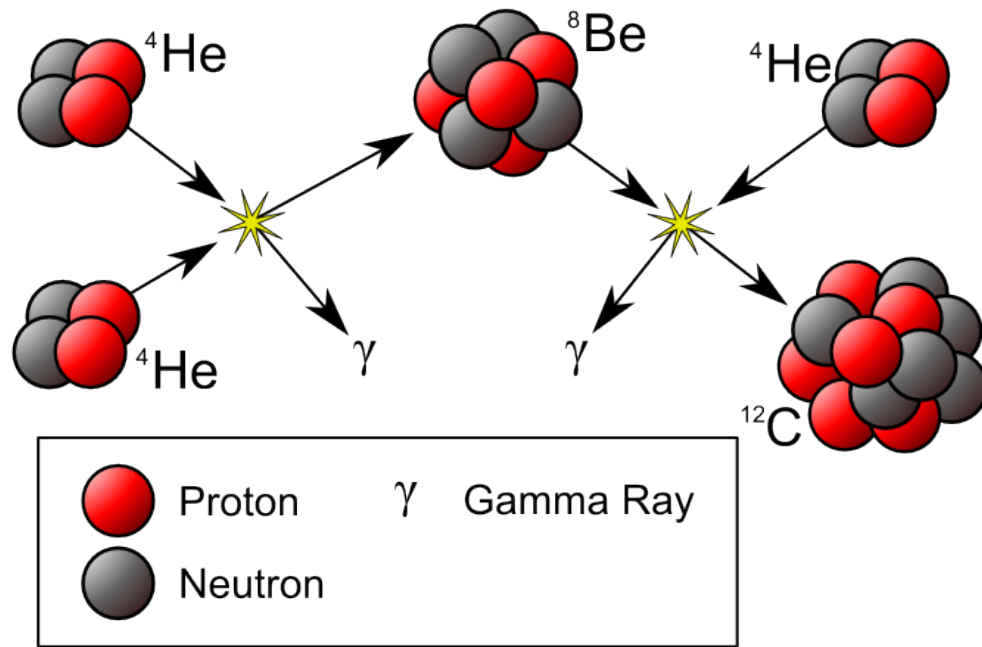
${}^8\text{Be}$ will decay back into He after just $3 \times 10^{-16}\text{s}$

Yet we know that the Universe has somehow managed to make heavier elements...

The Beryllium Bottleneck II

How do you make carbon?

Solution: The Triple-Alpha process can take place in stars because of high temperatures (fast fusion of Helium)



The Beryllium Bottleneck III

Triple-Alpha works because ^4He , ^8Be and ^{12}C happen to have finely tuned energy levels.

Fred Hoyle (1950s) predicted a so far unknown excited level of ^{12}C , to explain why Carbon-based entities such as ourselves exist. Experimentalists later proved him right!

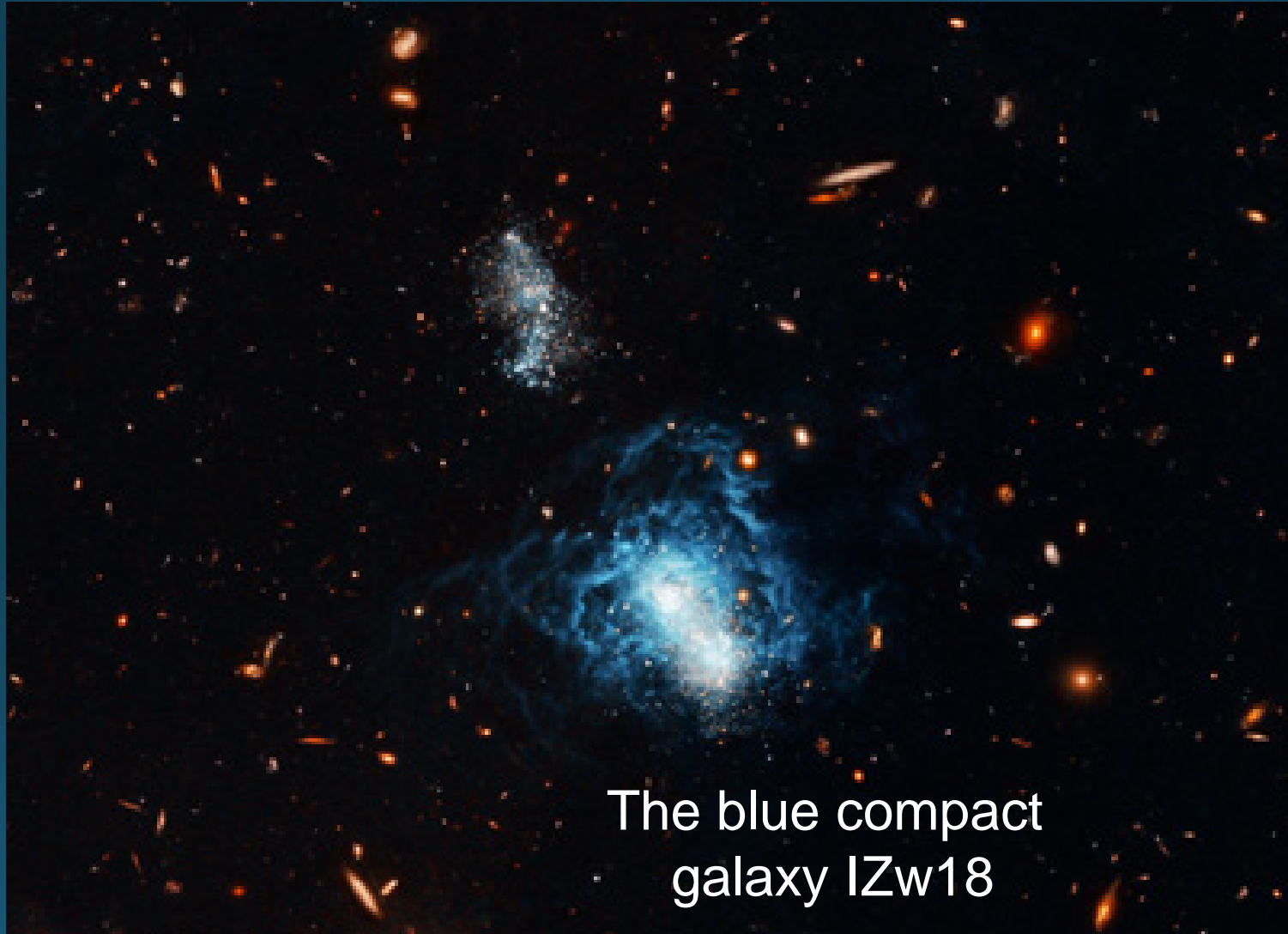


Primordial Abundances

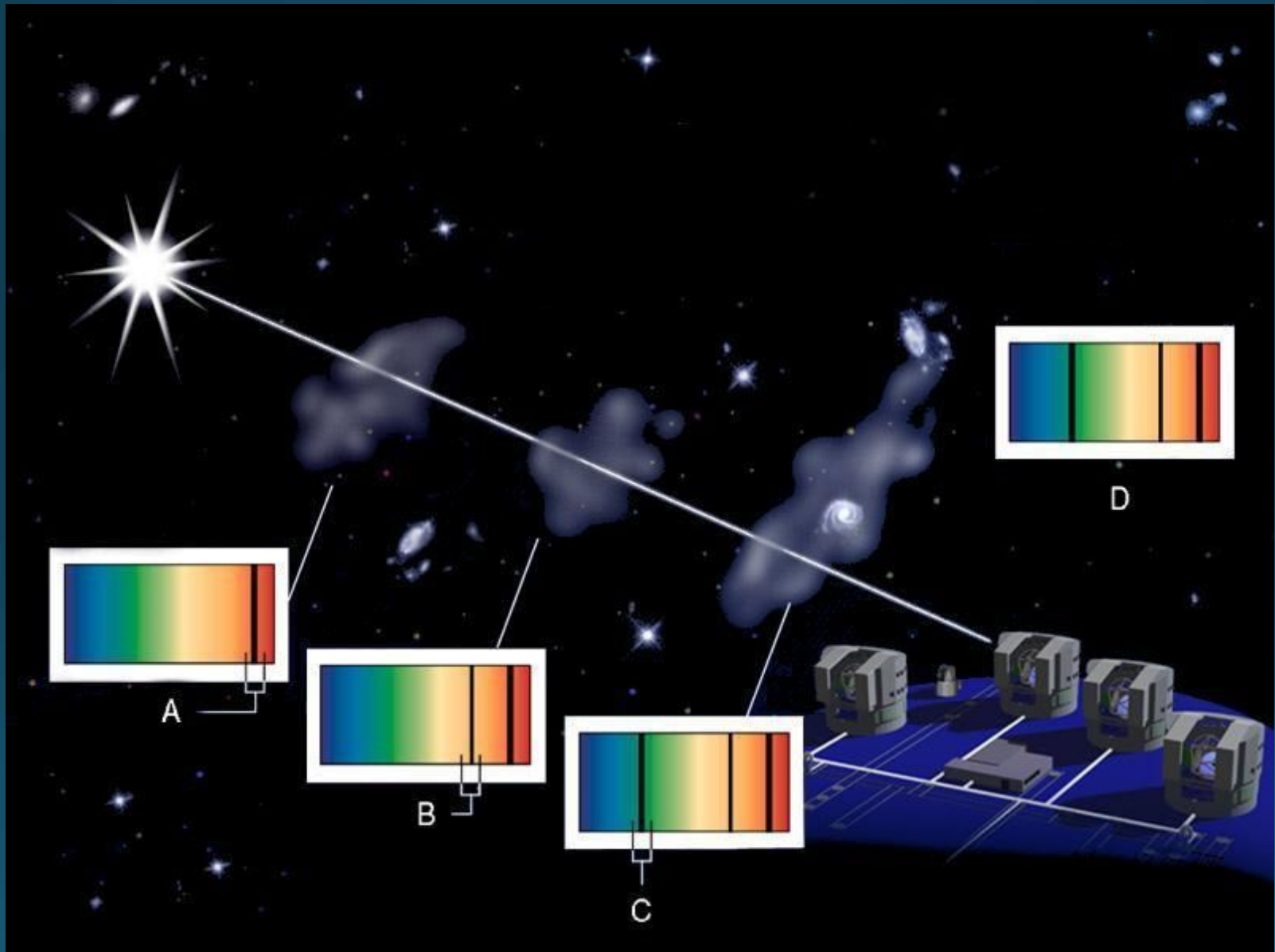
To test BBNS, one needs to measure the primordial abundances of the light elements, i.e.
measure the abundances in environments
unaffected by chemical evolution

- Helium: Low-metallicity HII regions
- Deuterium: Quasar absorption lines
- Lithium: Low-metallicity stars

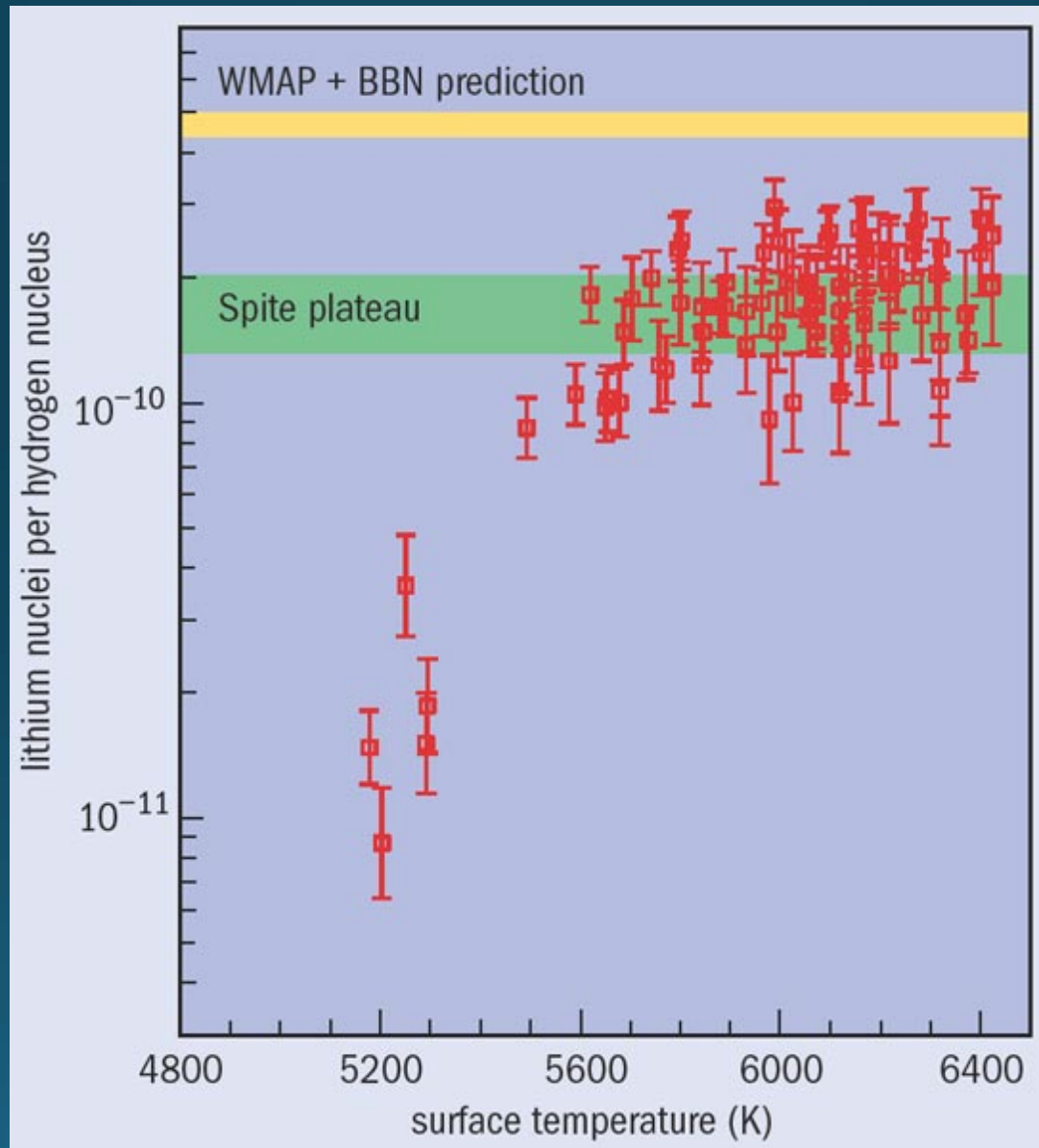
Primordial Helium



Primordial Deuterium



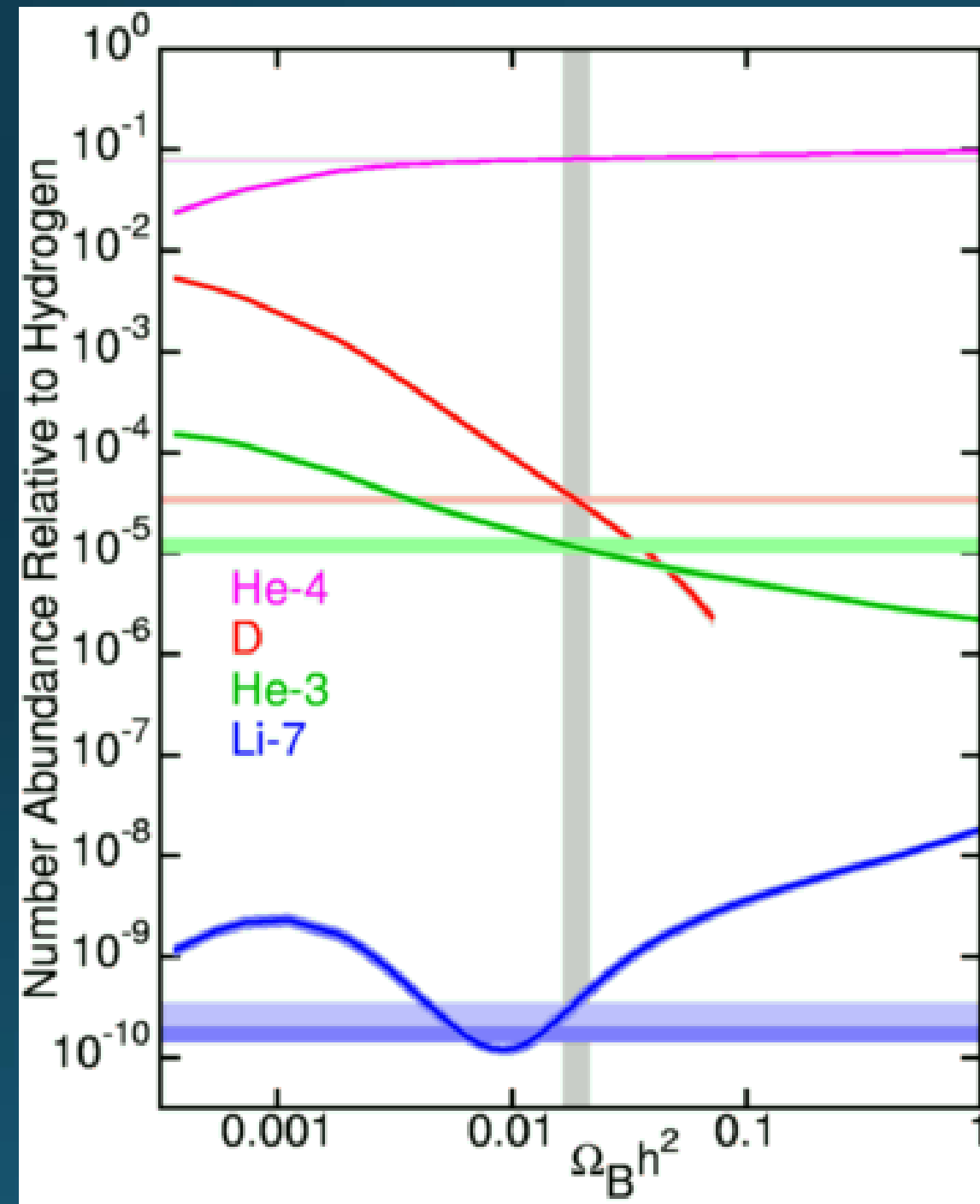
Primordial Lithium



BBNS – A Big Bang Success Story

- Big Bang explains primordial abundances of the light elements
- The abundances of the light elements agree with predictions over 9 orders of magnitude!
- The resulting Ω_b is in accord with the result from other methods

This is how the success story is usually told – but there may be more to this than meets the eye...



Impressive agreement
over 9 orders of
magnitude \rightarrow Big picture
probably correct

But beware:
The logarithmic scale
hides discrepancies...
And what is the
reason for the Li-7
mismatch?