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Cosmological constant, q-theory, and TeV-scale physics

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The main Cosmological Constant Problem (CCP1) can be phrased as follows (see, e.g., [1] for a review):

why does the zero-point energy of the vacuum not produce naturally a large cosmological constant Λ in the Einstein field equations?

The magnitude of the problem is enormous:

$$|\Lambda^{\text{naive theory}}|/|\Lambda^{\text{experiment}}| \ge 10^{42}$$
.

[1] S. Weinberg, RMP 61, 1 (1989).

Indeed, it is known that QCD in the laboratory involves a vacuum energy density (e.g., gluon condensate) of order

$$\left|\epsilon_V^{(\text{QCD})}\right| \sim \left(100 \text{ MeV}\right)^4 \sim 10^{32} \text{ eV}^4$$
 .

Moreover, this energy density can be expected to change as the temperature T of the Universe drops,

$$\epsilon_V^{(\text{QCD})} = \epsilon_V^{(\text{QCD})}(T)$$
.

How can it be that the Universe ends up with a vacuum energy density

$$|\Lambda^{\text{(obs)}}| \equiv |\epsilon_{\text{present}}| < 10^{-28} \text{ g cm}^{-3} \sim 10^{-10} \text{ eV}^4$$
 ?

Here, there are 42 orders of magnitude to explain:

Even more CCPs after the discovery of the "accelerating Universe":

CCP1 - why
$$|\Lambda| \ll (E_{\rm QCD})^4 \ll (E_{\rm electroweak})^4 \ll (E_{\rm UV})^4$$
 ?

CCP2a – why
$$\Lambda \neq 0$$
 ?

CCP2b - why
$$\Lambda \sim \rho_{\rm matter} \left|_{\rm present} \sim 10^{-11} \ {\rm eV}^4 \ ?$$

Hundreds of papers have been published on CCP2.

But CCP1 needs to be solved first before CCP2 can even be addressed.

Here, a brief review of a particular approach to CCP1, which goes under the name of q-theory [2,3].

Then, turn to CCP2, describe a possible mechanism, and discuss a hint for new **TeV-scale** physics [4–6].

Outline talk:

1.1 Basics of q-theory

← most important part of the talk

- 2.1 Coup d'envoi
- 2.2 Electroweak kick
- **2.3** Effective Λ and $E_{\rm ew}$
- 2.4 Recap mechanism
- [2] F.R. Klinkhamer & G.E. Volovik, PRD 77, 085015 (2008), arXiv:0711.3170.
- [3] F.R. Klinkhamer & G.E. Volovik, JETPL 91, 259 (2010), arXiv:0907.4887.
- [4] F.R. Klinkhamer and G.E. Volovik, PRD 80, 083001 (2009), arXiv:0905.1919.
- [5] F.R. Klinkhamer, PRD 82, 083006 (2010), arXiv:1001.1939.
- [6] F.R. Klinkhamer, arXiv:1101.1281.

Crucial insight [2]: there is vacuum energy and vacuum energy.

More specifically and introducing an appropriate notation:

the vacuum energy density $\boxed{\epsilon}$ appearing in the action need not be the same as the vacuum energy density $\boxed{\rho_V}$ in the Einstein field equations.

How can this happen concretely ...

Consider the full quantum vacuum to be a **self-sustained medium** (as is a droplet of water in free fall).

That medium would be characterized by some conserved charge.

Then, consider **macroscopic** equations of this conserved **microscopic** variable (later called q), whose precise nature need not be known.

An analogy: the mass density in liquids, which describes a microscopic quantity – the number density of atoms – but obeys the macroscopic equations of hydrodynamics, because of particle-number conservation.

However, is the quantum vacuum just like a normal fluid?

No, as the vacuum is known to be **Lorentz invariant** (cf. experimental limits at the 10^{-15} level in the photon sector [7–9]).

The Lorentz invariance of the vacuum rules out the standard type of charge density which arises from the <u>time</u> component j_0 of a conserved vector current j_{μ} .

Needed is a new type of **relativistic conserved charge**, called the vacuum variable q.

In other words, look for a relativistic generalization (q) of the number density (n) which characterizes the known material fluids.

^[7] A. Kostelecký and M. Mewes, PRD 66, 056005 (2002), arXiv:hep-ph/0205211.

^[8] F.R. Klinkhamer and M. Risse, PRD 77, 117901 (2008), arXiv:0709.2502

^[9] F.R. Klinkhamer and M. Schreck, PRD 78, 085026 (2008), arXiv:0809.3217.

With such a variable q(x), the vacuum energy density of the effective action can be a generic function

$$\epsilon = \epsilon(q)$$
, (1)

which may include a constant term due to the zero-point energies of the fields of the Standard Model (SM), $\epsilon(q) = \Lambda_{\text{bare}} + \epsilon_{\text{var}}(q)$.

From 1 thermodynamics and 2 Lorentz invariance, it then follows that

$$P_V \stackrel{\mathfrak{D}}{=} -\left(\epsilon - q \, \frac{d\,\epsilon}{d\,q}\right) \stackrel{\mathfrak{D}}{=} -\rho_V \,, \tag{2}$$

with the first equality corresponding to an integrated form of the Gibbs-Duhem equation (for chemical potential $\mu \equiv d\epsilon/dq$).

Recall GD-eq: $N d\mu = V dP - S dT \Rightarrow dP = (N/V) d\mu$ for dT = 0.

Both terms entering ρ_V from (2) can be of order $(E_{\text{UV}})^4$, but they can cancel exactly for an appropriate value q_0 of the vacuum variable q.

Hence, for a generic function $\epsilon(q)$,

$$\exists q_0 : \Lambda \equiv \rho_V = \left[\epsilon(q) - q \, \frac{d \, \epsilon(q)}{d \, q} \, \right]_{q=q_0} = 0 \,, \tag{3}$$

with constant vacuum variable q_0 [a similar constant variable is known to play a role for the Larkin–Pikin effect (1969) in solid-state physics].

Great, CCP1 solved, in principle . . .

<u>But</u>, is a relativistic vacuum variable q possible at all? Yes, there exist several theories which contain such a q (see later).

To summarize, the q-theory approach to the main Cosmological Constant Problem (CCP1) provides a solution.

For the moment, this is only a <u>possible solution</u>, because it is not known for sure that the "beyond-the-Standard-Model" physics harbors an appropriate q—type variable.

Still, better to have one possible solution than none.

(Two remarks in Appendix A.)

2.1 Coup d'envoi

Now, the remaining problems (or puzzles, rather):

CCP2a – why
$$\Lambda \neq 0$$
 ?

CCP2b - why
$$\Lambda \sim \rho_{\rm matter} \left|_{\rm now} \sim 10^{-29} \ {\rm g \ cm^{-3}} \right| \sim 10^{-11} \ {\rm eV^4}$$
 ?

CCP2b also goes under the name of 'cosmic coincidence puzzle' (ccp).

Here, consider a possible realization of q operative at an UV (Planckian) energy scale.

In the very early Universe, the vacuum energy density $\rho_V(t)$ rapidly drops to zero and stays there, but small effects may occur at cosmic temperatures T of the order of the TeV scale . . .

Explicit realization of vacuum variable q via a 3–form gauge field A [10,11]. Effective action of GR+SM,

$$S^{\text{eff}}[g,\psi] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} d^4x \sqrt{-\det g} \left(K_N R[g] + \Lambda_{\text{SM}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{SM}}^{\text{eff}}[\psi,g] \right), \tag{4}$$

with $K_N \equiv 1/(16\pi G_N)$ and $\hbar = c = 1$, is replaced by [3]

$$\widetilde{S}^{ ext{eff}}[A,g,\psi] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} d^4x \, \sqrt{-\det g} \, \Big(K(q) \, R[g] + \widetilde{\epsilon}(q) + \mathcal{L}_{ ext{SM}}^{ ext{eff}}[\psi,g] \Big), \quad ext{(5a)}$$

$$q^2 \equiv -\frac{1}{24} F_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} F^{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} \,. \tag{5b}$$

$$F_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} = \nabla_{[\alpha}A_{\beta\gamma\delta]}, \qquad (5c)$$

[10] M.J. Duff and P. van Nieuwenhuizen, PLB 94, 179 (1980).

[11] A. Aurilia, H. Nicolai, and P.K. Townsend, NPB 176, 509 (1980).

Then, variational principle produces generalized Einstein equations with a vacuum energy density term

$$\rho_V = \widetilde{\epsilon} - q \, \frac{d \, \widetilde{\epsilon}}{d \, q} \,, \tag{6}$$

which is <u>precisely</u> of the Gibbs–Duhem form (2). Technically, the extra term on the RHS of (6) appears because of the fact that q = q(A, g). Specifically, the generalized Einstein and Maxwell equations give:

$$2K(q) \left(R_{\alpha\beta} - g_{\alpha\beta} R/2 \right) = -2 \left(\nabla_{\alpha} \nabla_{\beta} - g_{\alpha\beta} \square \right) K(q) + \rho_{V}(q) g_{\alpha\beta} - T_{\alpha\beta}^{M}, \tag{7a}$$

$$\frac{d\rho_V(q)}{dq} + R\frac{dK(q)}{dq} = 0. ag{7b}$$

Eqs. (6)–(7) are generic, i.e., independent of scale and dimension of q.

Spatially-flat (F)RW universe with two types of matter, massive ('type 1') and massless ('type 2') particles. Resulting ODEs:

$$6\left(H\frac{dK}{dq}\frac{dq}{dt} + KH^2\right) = \rho_V + \rho_{M1} + \rho_{M2}, \qquad \text{(8a)}$$

$$6\frac{dK}{dq}\left(\frac{dH}{dt} + 2H^2\right) = \frac{d\rho_V}{dq}, \tag{8b}$$

$$\frac{d\rho_{M1}}{dt} + \left[4 - \kappa_{M1}(t/t_{\text{ew}})\right] H \rho_{M1} = 0, \tag{8c}$$

$$\frac{d\rho_{M2}}{dt} + 4H\,\rho_{M2} = 0\,, ag{8d}$$

with prescribed equation-of-state (EOS) function $\kappa_{M1}(x)$ peaking at x=1.

Analytically, it has been shown [4] that there exists a solution which

- ullet starts from a standard radiation-dominated FRW universe with $ho_V=0$,
- is perturbed around $t = t_{\text{ew}} \sim E_{\text{Planck}}/(E_{\text{ew}})^2$ with $\rho_V \neq 0$,
- ullet resumes the standard radiation-dominated expansion with $ho_V=0$.

Specifically, the vacuum energy density for $t \sim t_{\rm ew}$ is given by

$$\rho_V(t) \sim \kappa_{M1}^2(t) H(t)^4,$$
(9)

which has a peak value of order $(t_{\rm ew})^{-4} \sim \left((E_{\rm ew})^2 / E_{\rm Planck}\right)^4$ but vanishes as $t \to \infty$.

 \Rightarrow standard (nondissipative) dynamic equations of q—theory do not produce a constant $\rho_{V,\, \rm remnant} > 0$ from the electroweak kick.

2.3 Effective Λ and E_{ew}

As argued in [4], quantum-dissipative effects of the vacuum energy density may lead to a <u>finite remnant value</u> of order

$$\Lambda \equiv \rho_{V, \text{ remnant}} \sim \left((E_{\text{ew}})^2 / E_{\text{Planck}} \right)^4 \sim (10^{-3} \text{ eV})^4, \tag{10}$$

for $E_{\rm ew}\sim 1$ TeV and $E_{\rm Planck}\sim 10^{15}$ TeV. In fact, expression (10) was already suggested by Arkani-Hamed, Hall, Kolda, and Murayama [12].

It is possible [5] to modify the "classical" q—theory equations (8) in such a way as to recover (10).

Even better, a simple field-theory model has been presented in [6].

Details for simple model [6] in Appendix C (skip Appendix B for [5]).

Here, focus on the physics implications.

[12] N. Arkani-Hamed et al., PRL 85, 4434 (2000), arXiv:astro-ph/0005111.

2.3 Effective Λ and E_{ew}

Theoretical value of the effective cosmological constant given by

$$\Lambda^{\text{theory}} \equiv \lim_{t \to \infty} \rho_V^{\text{theory}}(t) = r_V^{\text{num}} (E_{\text{ew}})^8 / (E_{\text{Planck}})^4, \tag{11}$$

with a number $r_V^{\text{num}} \equiv r_V(\tau_{\text{freeze}})$ from the solution of the ODEs.

Equating this to the experimental value $\Lambda^{\rm exp} \approx (2~{\rm meV})^4$ gives

$$E_{
m ew} = \left(rac{\Lambda^{
m exp}}{r_V^{
m num}}
ight)^{1/8} (E_{
m Planck})^{1/2} pprox 3.8 \ {
m TeV} \ \left(rac{0.013}{r_V^{
m num}}
ight)^{1/8} \,.$$
 (12)

Analytic bound: $r_V^{\mathsf{num}} \lesssim 1 \Rightarrow E_{\mathsf{ew}} \gtrsim 2 \text{ TeV}.$

Numerical results for r_V^{num} give E_{ew} estimates of Table 1.

2.3 Effective Λ and E_{ew}

Table 1: Preliminary estimates [5] of the energy scale $E_{\rm ew}$ for hierarchy parameter $\xi \equiv (E_{\rm Planck}/E_{\rm ew})^4 \gg 1$. Both massive type–1 and massless type–2 particles are assumed to have been in thermal equilibrium before the "kick" and the number of type–2 particles is taken as $N_{\rm eff,2}=10^2$.

Left: Prescribed kick with type-1 particles of equal mass $M=E_{\rm ew}$ and, for dissipative coupling constant $\zeta=2$, $E_{\rm ew}$ shown as a function of the effective number of d.o.f. $N_{\rm eff,1}$. Right: Dynamic kick with case-A type-1 mass spectrum $(N_{1a},\,M_{1a}\,;\,N_{1b},\,M_{1b})=(40,\,2\times\overline{E_{\rm ew}};\,60,\,1/3\times E_{\rm ew})$ and $E_{\rm ew}=< M_{1i}>$ shown as a function of ζ .

ζ	$N_{eff,1}$	$E_{ew}\left[TeV\right]$
2	1	8.5
2	10^{1}	4.9
2	10^{2}	$\boxed{3.2}$
2	10^{3}	2.8
2	10^{4}	2.7

$\overline{\zeta}$	$N_{eff,1}$	$E_{ew}\left[TeV\right]$
0.2	10^{2}	14.8
2	10^{2}	3.8
20	10^{2}	5.6

2.4 Recap mechanism

- Presence of massive particles with electroweak interactions [average mass $< M > = E_{\rm ew} \sim {\rm TeV}$] changes the expansion rate H(t) of the Universe compared to the radiation-dominated case.
- Change of the expansion rate kicks $\rho_V(t)$ away from zero.
- Quantum-dissipative effects operating at cosmic time t_{ew} set by E_{ew} may result in a finite remnant value of ρ_V .
- Phenomenological description of this process with a simple field theoretic model.
- Required E_{ew} value ranges from 2 to 20 TeV, depending on the effective number of new particles and details of the model.

Conclusions

CCP1: self-adjustment of a special type of vacuum variable q can give $\rho_V(q_0)=0$ in the equilibrium state $q=q_0$.

CCP2: finite remnant value of $\rho_V(t)$ may result from quantum-dissipative effects operating at a cosmic time $t_{\rm ew}$ set by the scale $E_{\rm ew}\sim {\rm TeV}$ of massive particles with $M\sim E_{\rm ew}$ and electroweak interactions.

Hint: required E_{ew} value ranges from 2 to 20 TeV, which, if correct, implies new TeV–scale physics beyond the SM.

(+ Appendices for technical details.)

Appendix A: Two remarks

Two remarks [3]:

1. The adjustment-type solution (3) of the CCP1 circumvents Weinberg's no–go "theorem" [1].

Crux: q is a non-fundamental scalar field (cf. theory of Sec. 2.2).

2. Next question is how the Universe got the right value q_0 ? Possible answer via a generalization of q-theory, for which the correct value q_0 arises dynamically (cf. brief summary below).

Appendix A: Two remarks

Realization of vacuum variable q by aether-type velocity field u_{β} [13,14], setting $E_{\text{UV}} = E_{\text{Planck}}$. For a flat FRW metric with cosmic time t, there is an asymptotic solution for $u_{\beta} = (u_0, u_b)$ and Hubble parameter H(t):

$$u_0(t) \to q_0 t$$
, $u_b(t) = 0$, $H(t) \to 1/t$. (A.1)

Define $v \equiv u_0/E_{\text{Planck}}$, $\tau \equiv t \, E_{\text{Planck}}$, $h \equiv H/E_{\text{Planck}}$, and $\lambda \equiv \Lambda/(E_{\text{Planck}})^4$. Then, the field equations are [13]:

$$\ddot{v} + 3h\dot{v} - 3h^2v = 0, (A.2a)$$

$$2\lambda - (\dot{v})^2 - 3(hv)^2 = 6h^2,$$
 (A.2b)

with the overdot standing for differentiation with respect to τ . Starting from a de-Sitter universe with $\lambda>0$, there is a unique value of $\widehat{q}_0\equiv q_0/(E_{\mathsf{Planck}})^2$ to end up with a static Minkowski spacetime, $\widehat{q}_0=\sqrt{\lambda/2}$.

[13] A.D. Dolgov, PRD 55, 5881 (1997), arXiv:astro-ph/9608175.

[14] T. Jacobson, PoS QG-PH, 020 (2007), arXiv:0801.1547.

Appendix A: Two remarks

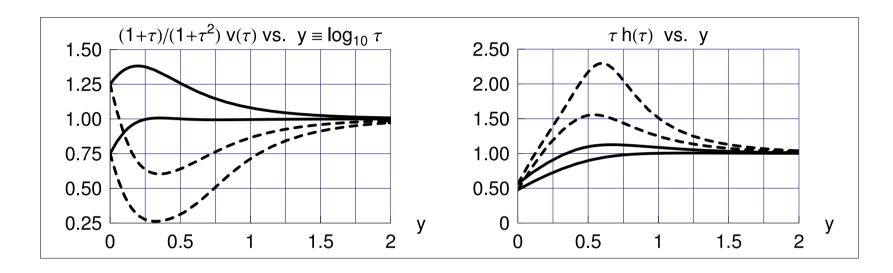


Fig. A1: Four numerical solutions of ODEs (A.2ab) for $\lambda=2$ and boundary conditions $v(1)=1\pm0.25$ and $\dot{v}(1)=\pm1.25$.

- \Rightarrow Minkowski value $\widehat{q}_0 = \sqrt{\lambda/2} = 1$ arises dynamically [see left panel].
- ⇒ Minkowski spacetime is an <u>attractor</u>.

Model universe with three components (see Appendix A of [5]):

- 0. Vacuum variable q entering the gravitational coupling K(q).
- 1. Massive 'type 1' particles (subspecies $i=a,b,c,\ldots$) with masses M_i of order $E_{\text{ew}} \sim 1$ TeV and electroweak interactions.
- 2. Massless 'type 2' particles with electroweak interactions.

Now, proceed as follows:

- Consider a flat FRW universe with Hubble parameter H(t).
- Allow for energy exchange between the two matter components, so that total type-1 energy density peaks around $t_{\text{ew}} \equiv E_{\text{Planck}}/(E_{\text{ew}})^2$.
- Get function $\overline{\kappa}_{M1i}(t)$ from EOS parameter $w_{M1i}(t)$, with $\overline{\kappa}_{M1i}(t) \sim 0$ for $t \ll t_{\rm ew}$ in the ultrarelativistic regime.
- Introduce a dissipative coupling constant $\zeta = O(1)$ and a function $\gamma(t)$ which equals 1 for $t \ll t_{\rm ew}$ and drops to zero for $t > t_{\rm ew}$.

Modified *q*—theory ODEs (standard ODEs recovered for $\zeta = 0$ and $\gamma = 1$):

6
$$(H K' \dot{q} + K H^2) = \rho_V + \sum_{i=a,b,c,...} \rho_{M1i} + \rho_{M2}$$
, (B.1a)

$$6 K' \left(\dot{H} + 2H^2 \right) = \gamma \, \rho_V' + \left(1 - \gamma \right) \frac{K'}{K} \left[2\rho_V + \sum_i \frac{1}{2} \, \overline{\kappa}_{M1i} \, \rho_{M1i} \right], \qquad \text{(B.1b)}$$

$$\dot{\rho}_{M1i} + (4 - \overline{\kappa}_{M1i}) H \rho_{M1i} = \frac{N_{1i}}{N_1} \Big[\frac{\lambda_{21}}{t_{\rm ew}} \widehat{\omega} \, \rho_{M2} - \frac{\zeta}{\gamma} q \, \dot{\rho}_V' \Big] - \frac{\lambda_{12}}{t_{\rm ew}} \widehat{\nu} \, \rho_{M1i}, \text{(B.1c)}$$

$$\dot{\rho}_{M2} + 4 H \, \rho_{M2} = -\frac{\lambda_{21}}{t_{\text{ew}}} \, \widehat{\omega} \, \rho_{M2} + \frac{\lambda_{12}}{t_{\text{ew}}} \, \widehat{\nu} \, \sum_{i} \rho_{M1i} \,,$$
 (B.1d)

where the overdot [prime] stands for differentiation with respect to t [q]. Functions γ , $\widehat{\omega}$, and $\widehat{\nu}$ shown in Figs. B1–B4 below.

Use simple *Ansätze*: $\rho_V(q) \propto (q-q_0)^2$ and $K(q) \propto q$.

With $t_{\rm ew}$ and $\xi \equiv (E_{\rm Planck}/E_{\rm ew})^4 \gg 1$, define dimensionless variables:

$$au \equiv (t_{\mathsf{ew}})^{-1} t, \qquad h \equiv t_{\mathsf{ew}} H, \qquad \qquad \mathsf{(B.2a)}$$

$$r_V \equiv (t_{\text{ew}})^4 \rho_V, \qquad r_{Mn} \equiv \xi^{-1} (t_{\text{ew}})^4 \rho_{Mn}, \qquad (B.2b)$$

$$x \equiv \xi \left(q/q_0 - 1 \right). \tag{B.2c}$$

Figures B1–B3 and B4 show numerical results for $\xi=10^2$ and $\xi=\infty$.

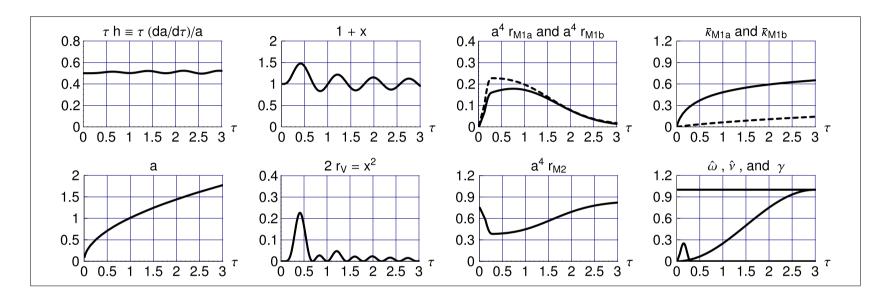


Fig. B1: Numerical solution [5] of <u>standard</u> (nondissipative) q-theory ODEs (B.1) for $\zeta=0$ and $\gamma=1$. The hierarchy parameter is $\xi=10^2$ [oscillatory effects suppressed for larger values of ξ , recovering the smooth behavior of (9)]. Further coupling constants $\{\lambda_{21},\,\lambda_{12}\}=\{18,\,2\}$ and case-A type-1 mass spectrum $(N_{1a},\,M_{1a}\,;\,N_{1b},\,M_{1b})=(40,\,2\,E_{\rm ew};\,60,\,1/3\,E_{\rm ew}).$

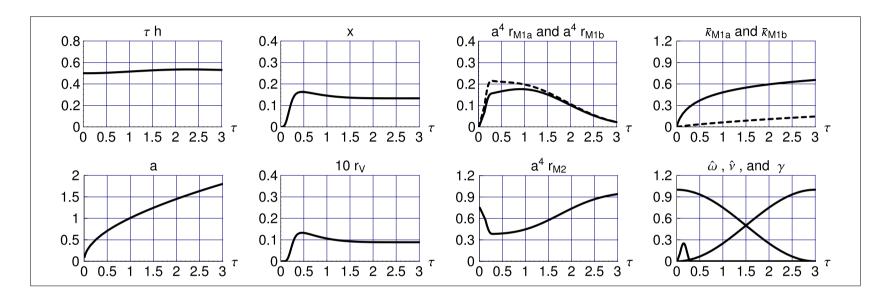


Fig. B2: Same as Fig. B1, but now for the <u>modified</u> q-theory ODEs (B.1) with dissipative coupling constant $\zeta=2$ and $\gamma(\tau)=0$ for $\tau\geq\tau_{\text{freeze}}=3$.

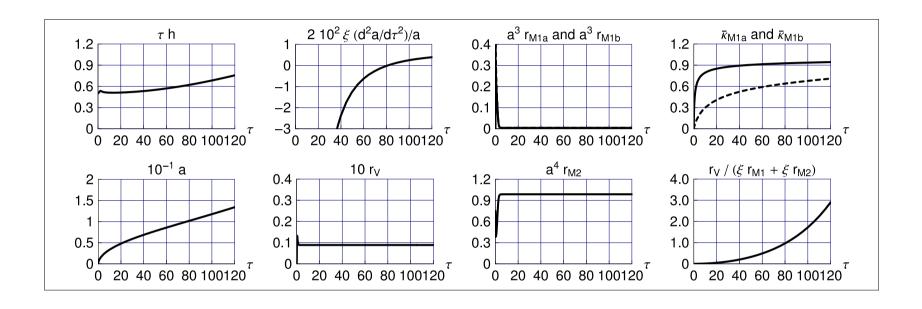


Fig. B3: Same as Fig. B2, but evolved further.

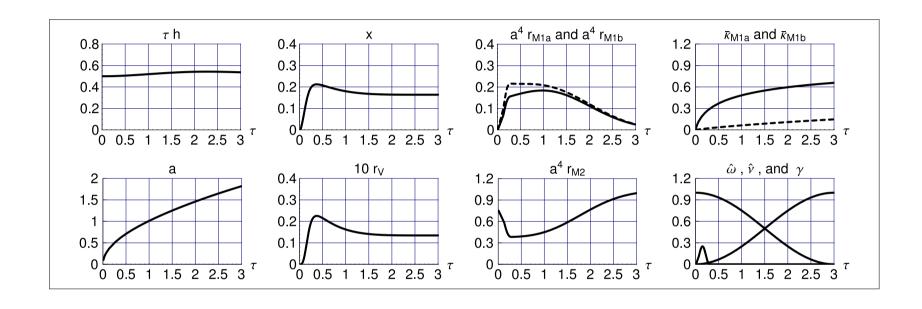


Fig. B4: Same as Fig. B2, but now for $\xi = \infty$.

Simple field-theoretic model can generate an effective cosmological constant (remnant vacuum energy density) of order $\Lambda_{\rm eff} \sim ({\rm meV})^4$, from new TeV–scale ultramassive particles with electroweak interactions.

The model is **simple** in the sense that it involves only a few types of fields and two energy scales, E_{Planck} and E_{ew} .

Specifically, two types of scalars:

- ultramassive (type–1) fields ϕ_a for $a=1,\ldots,N_1$;
- \blacksquare massless (type–2) fields ψ_b for $b=1,\ldots,N_2$;
- take $N_1 \stackrel{\textcircled{1}}{=} N_2 \stackrel{\textcircled{2}}{=} 10^2$ from ② SM and ① SUSY?.

Basic model equations are ($\hbar = c = k = 1$; signature -, +, +, +):

$$S_{ ext{eff},\,T} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} d^4x\,\sqrt{-g}\,\Big(K_T(q)\,R[g] + \epsilon_V(q) + \mathcal{L}^M_{ ext{eff},\,T}[\phi,\psi,g]\Big)\,,$$
 (C.1a)

$$q \equiv -\frac{1}{24} \epsilon^{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} \nabla_{[\alpha} A_{\beta\gamma\delta]} / \sqrt{-g} , \qquad (C.1b)$$

$$\rho_V(q) \equiv \epsilon_V(q) - \mu_0 \, q = \frac{1}{2} \left(q - q_0 \right)^2,$$
(C.1c)

$$K_T(q) = \begin{cases} q/2 & \text{for } T > T_{c,K}^{(+)}, \\ q_0/2 & \text{for } T \le T_{c,K}^{(+)}, \end{cases}$$
 (C.1d)

$$q_0 = 1/(8\pi G_N) \equiv (E_{\text{Planck}})^2 \approx (2.44 \times 10^{18} \,\text{GeV})^2$$
. (C.1e)

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}, T}^{M} = \frac{1}{2} \partial_{\alpha} \psi \cdot \partial^{\alpha} \psi + \frac{1}{2} \partial_{\alpha} \phi \cdot \partial^{\alpha} \phi + \frac{1}{2} M^{2} (\phi \cdot \phi) + g_{T} (\psi \cdot \psi) (\phi \cdot \phi), \qquad (C.2a)$$

$$g_T = \begin{cases} g_0 \left(1 - \left(T/T_{c,g} \right)^2 \right) & \text{for } T \leq T_{c,g}, \\ 0 & \text{for } T > T_{c,g}, \end{cases}$$
 (C.2b)

$$M = E_{\text{ew}},$$
 (C.2c)

$$T_{c,q} = O(E_{\text{ew}}).$$
 (C.2d)

$$T_{c,g} > T_{c,K}^{(+)} = O(E_{\text{ew}}).$$
 (C.2e)

$$\xi \equiv (E_{\text{Planck}}/E_{\text{ew}})^4$$
 (C.3)

Spatially flat, homogeneous, and isotropic (F)RW universe.

Timescale set by

$$t_{\text{ew}} \equiv E_{\text{Planck}}/(E_{\text{ew}})^2 = \left(1/\text{meV}\right) \left(\text{TeV}/E_{\text{ew}}\right)^2.$$
 (C.4)

Dimensionless variables:

$$au \equiv (t_{\text{ew}})^{-1} t, \qquad h \equiv t_{\text{ew}} H, \qquad (C.5a)$$

$$r_{Mn} \equiv \xi^{-1} (t_{\text{ew}})^4 \rho_{Mn}, \qquad r_V \equiv (t_{\text{ew}})^4 \rho_V = x^2/2, \qquad \text{(C.5b)}$$

$$x \equiv \xi \left(q/q_0 - 1 \right). \tag{C.5c}$$

Dimensionless ODEs:

with EOS function $\overline{\kappa}_{M1}$ from [5] and coupling parameters $\left[\lambda \propto (g_0)^2\right]$:

$$\lambda_{12}(\tau) = \lambda \, \theta[r_{c,g} - r_{M2}] \left(1 - \sqrt{r_{M2}/r_{c,g}} \right)^2,$$
 (C.6e)

$$\lambda_{21}(\tau) = \lambda_{12}(\tau) \exp \left[-\left(\frac{\pi N_2}{30 \, r_{M2}(\tau_{\min})}\right)^{1/4} \, \frac{a(\tau)}{a(\tau_{\min})} \, \frac{M}{E_{\text{ew}}} \right] \,.$$
 (C.6f)

Model universe has early phase given by a <u>standard</u> radiation-dominated FRW universe ⇒ fully determined boundary conditions of ODEs.

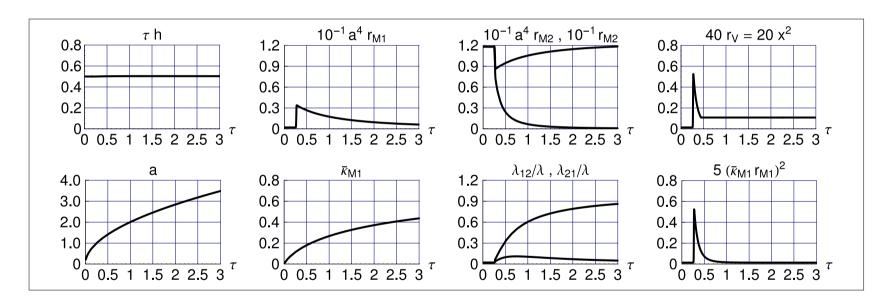


Fig. C1: Numerical solution of the dimensionless ODEs (C.6). Model parameters are $\{\xi, \lambda, r_{c,g}, r_{c,K}\} = \{10^7, 10^4, 12, 3\}$. The ODEs are solved over the interval $[\tau_{\min}, \tau_{\max}] = [0.01, 3]$ with the boundary conditions at $\tau = \tau_{\text{bcs}} = 0.25$: $\{x, h, a, r_{M1}, r_{M2}\} = \{0, 2, 1, 0, 12\}$. Essentially the same results for $\xi = 10^{60}$.

The calculated value $r_{V,\, \rm remnant} \approx 2.4 \times 10^{-3}$ gives $E_{\rm ew} \approx 4.7$ TeV, according to (12).

But, here, main focus on the <u>physical content</u> of a theory capable of generating the observed cosmological "constant" of our Universe.

Hence, analytic result of interest:

$$\lim_{\tau \to \infty} r_V(\tau) \Big|^{\xi = \infty} = \frac{1}{8} \left(\overline{\kappa}_{M1}(\tau_{\text{freeze}}) \ r_{M1}(\tau_{\text{freeze}}) \right)^2 \Big|_{r_{M2}(\tau_{\text{freeze}}) = r_{c, K}}. \quad \text{(C.7)}$$