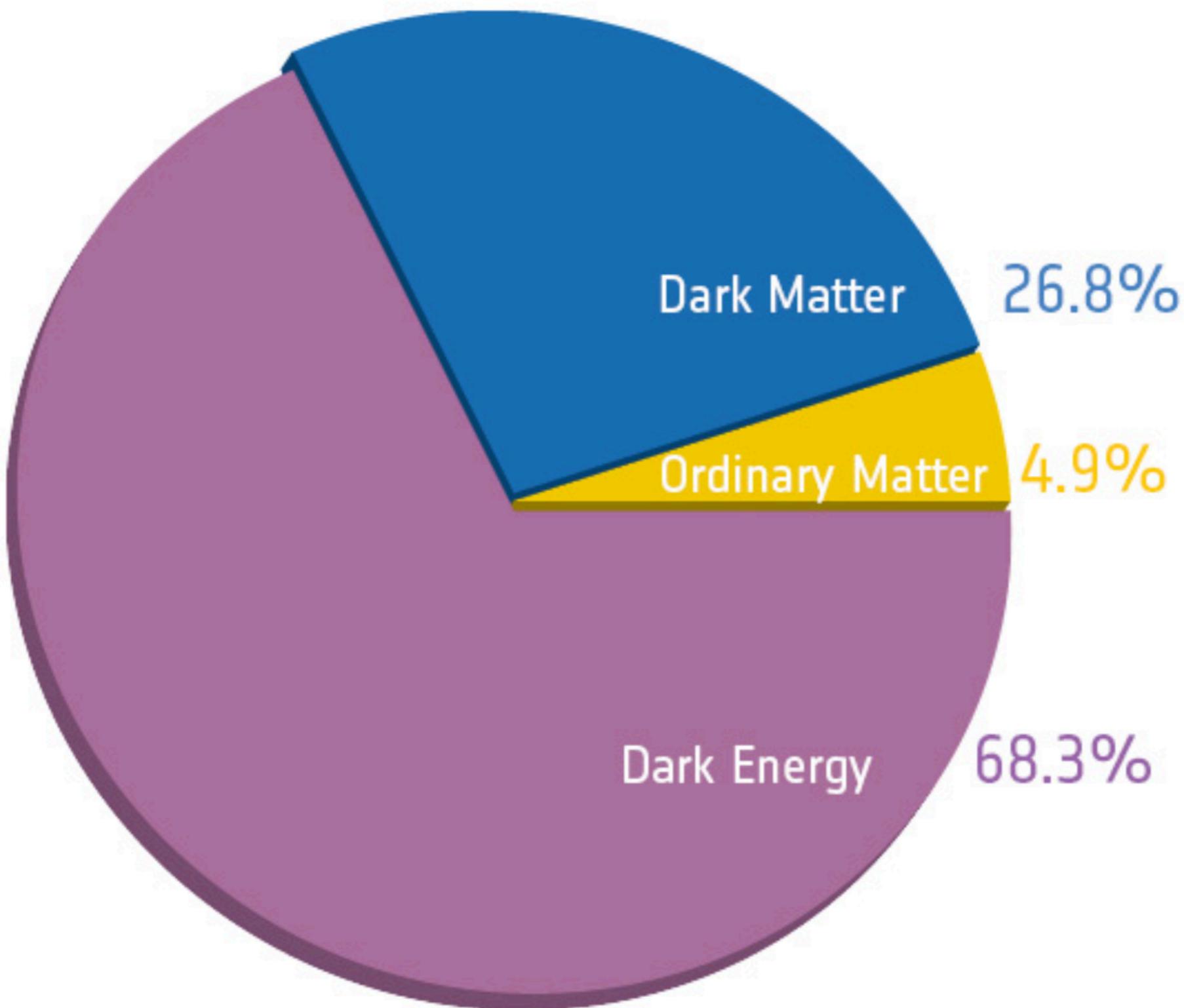




Imprint of the dark components on the CMB and LSS: part I

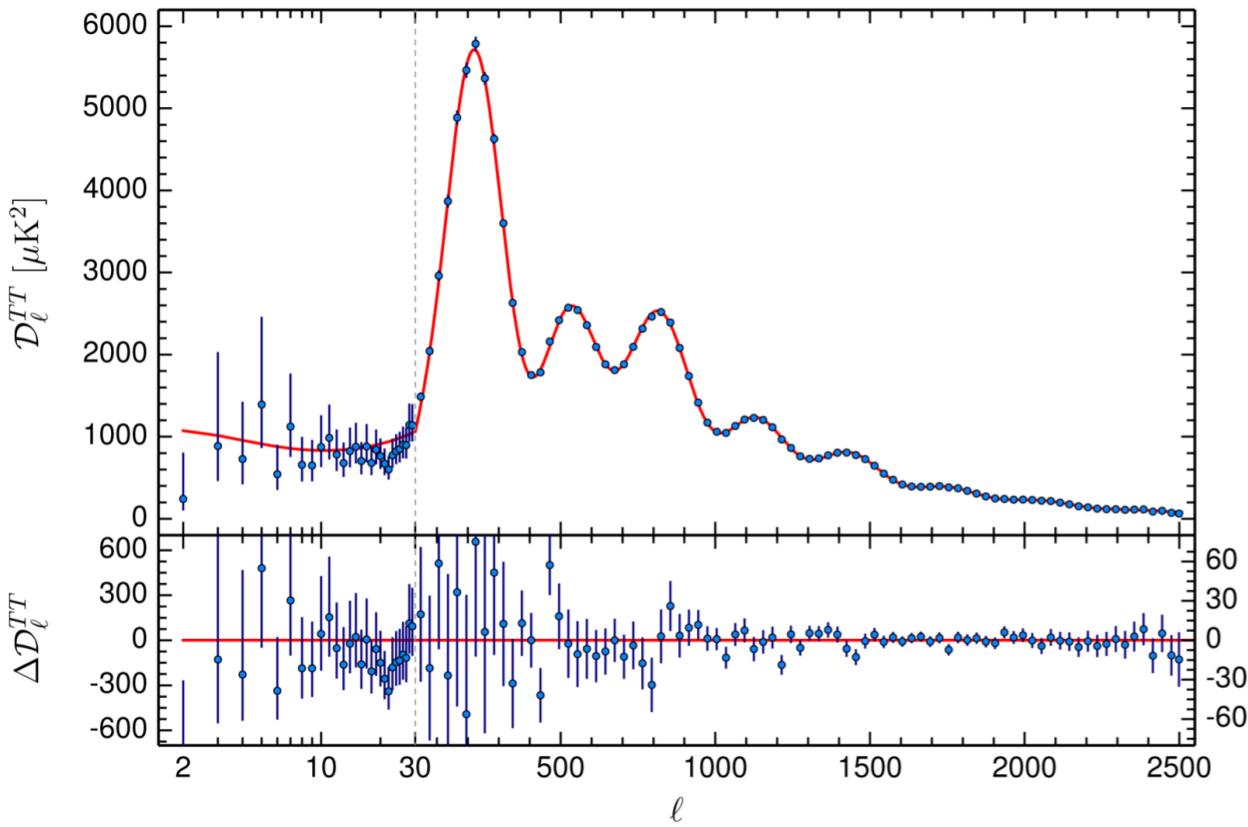
Thibaut Louis

Standard model of cosmology



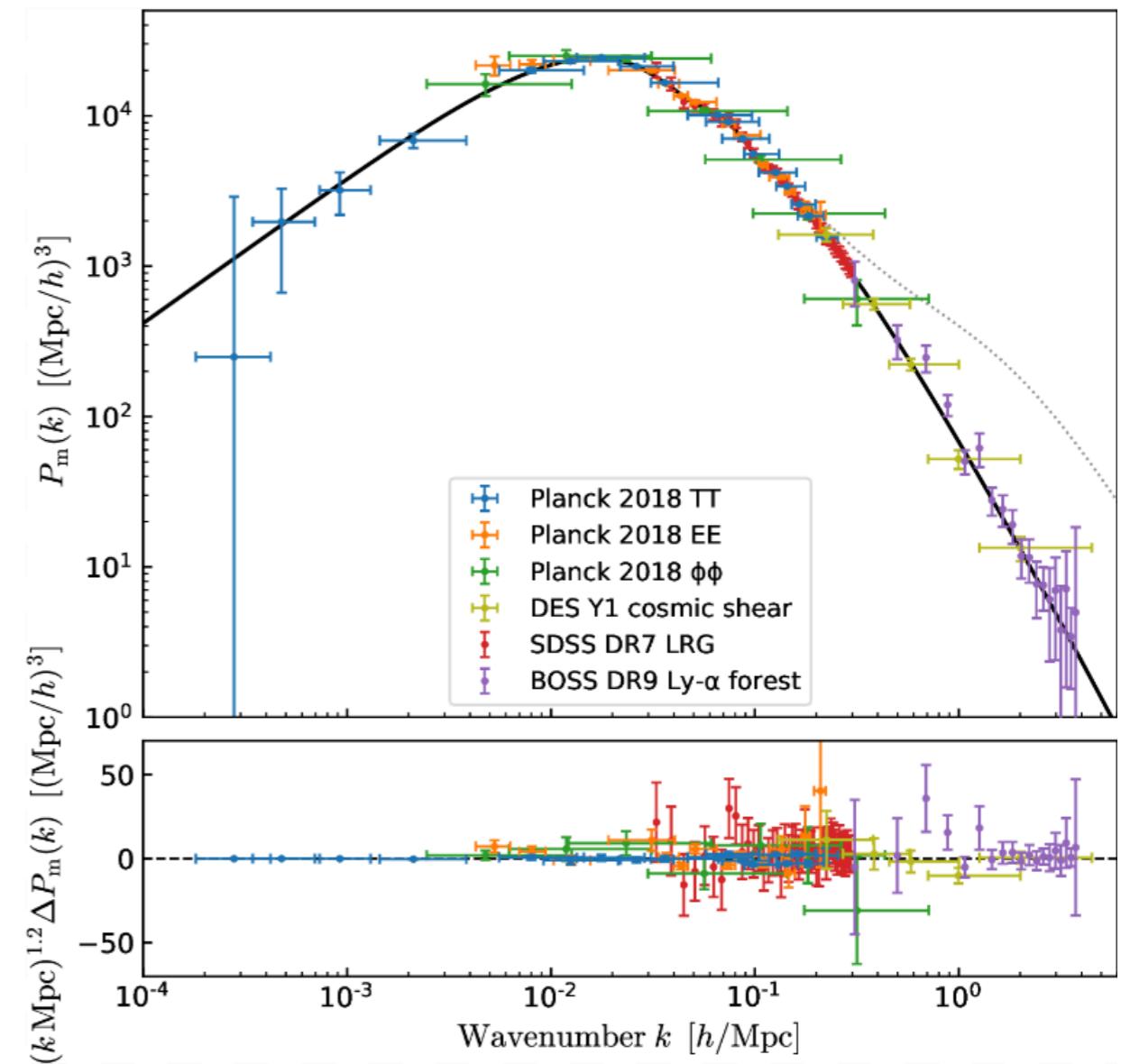
Standard model of cosmology

CMB anisotropy



<https://arxiv.org/abs/1807.06205>

Matter distribution



<https://arxiv.org/pdf/1905.08103.pdf>

**Before we start: some
non cosmological probes**

Galaxy rotation curve

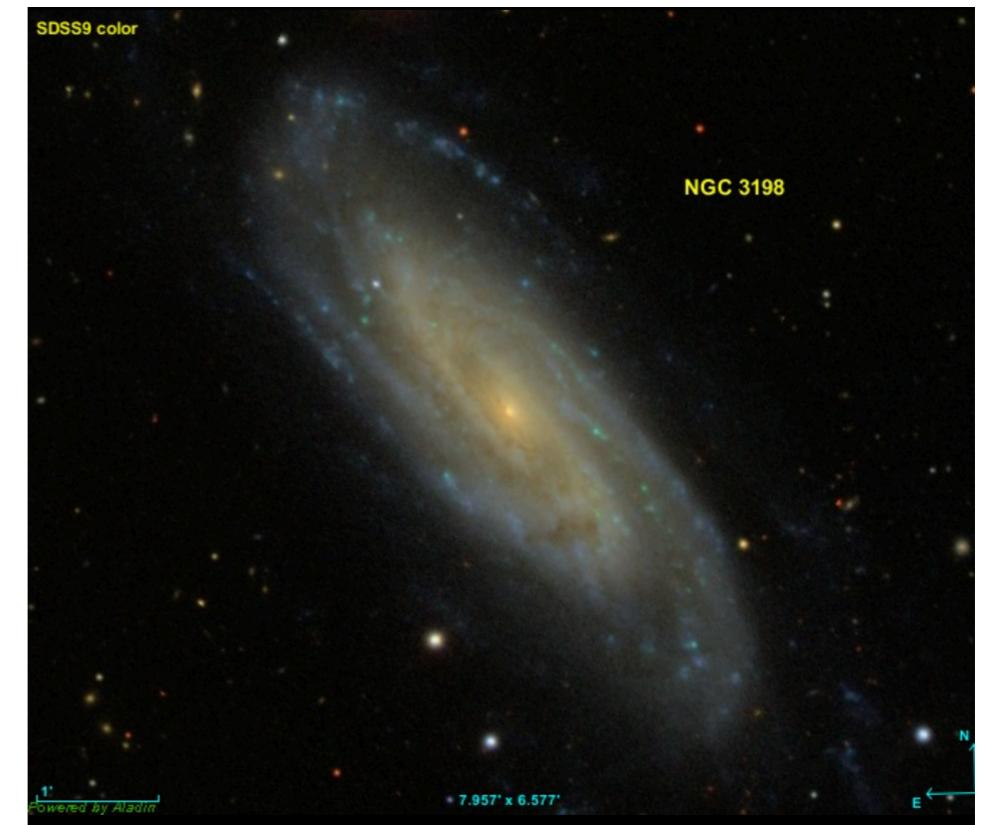
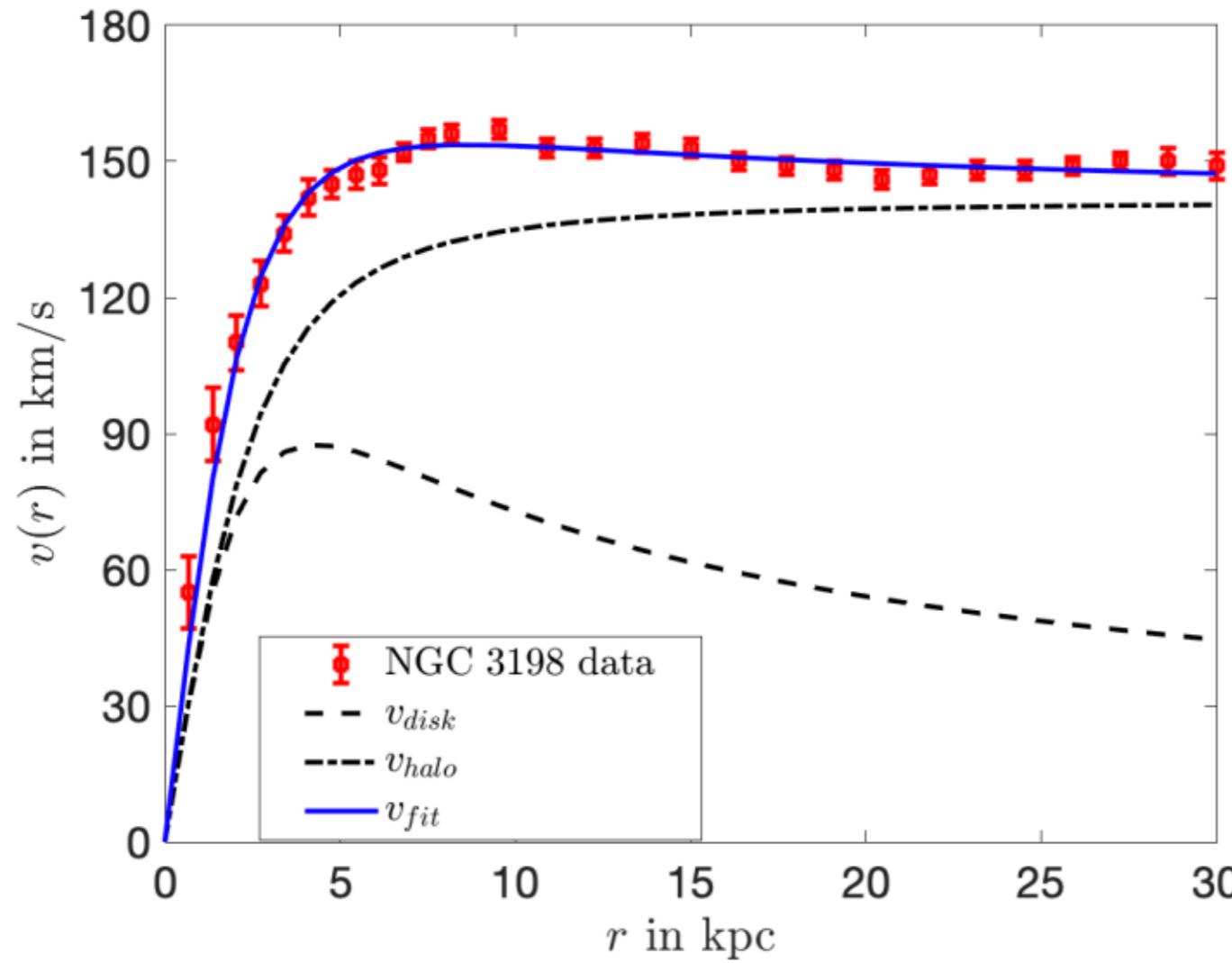


Fig. 1. The rotation curve for NGC 3198. r is the distance from the galactic center and $v(r)$ is the rotation speed. The data is from van Albada *et al* [6].

Dark matter really ? or modified gravity ?

<https://arxiv.org/pdf/astro-ph/0207469.pdf>

Example MOND:

$$\vec{F} = m \cdot \mu \left(\frac{\vec{a}}{a_0} \right) \cdot \vec{a}, \text{ avec } a = |\vec{a}| \quad \text{et}$$

$$\mu(x) = 1 \text{ si } x \gg 1$$

$$\mu(x) = x \text{ si } |x| \ll 1$$

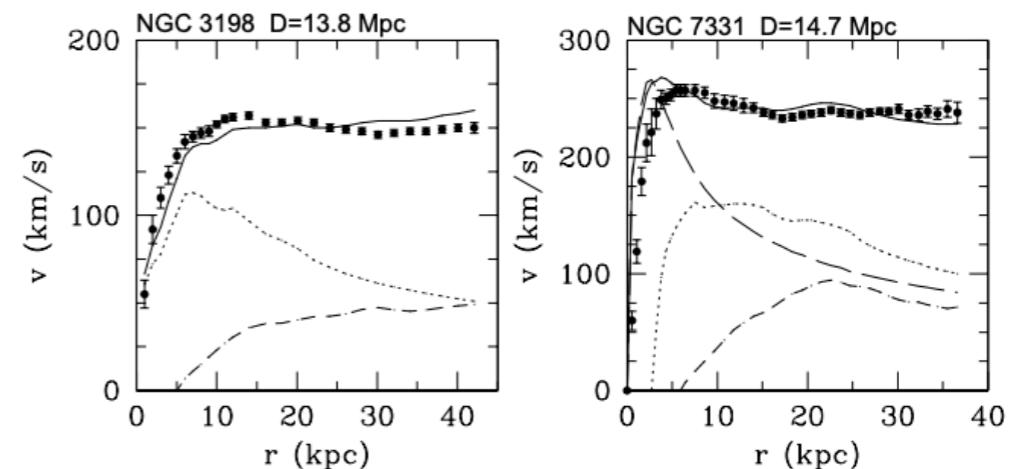
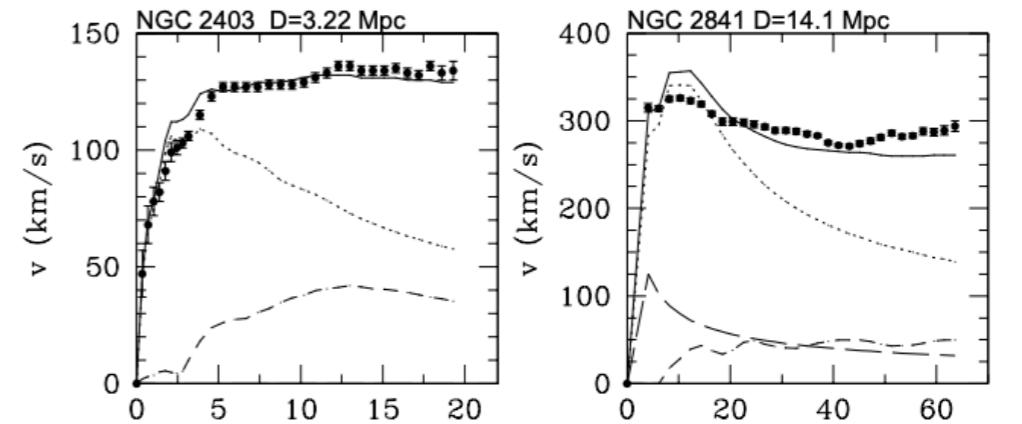
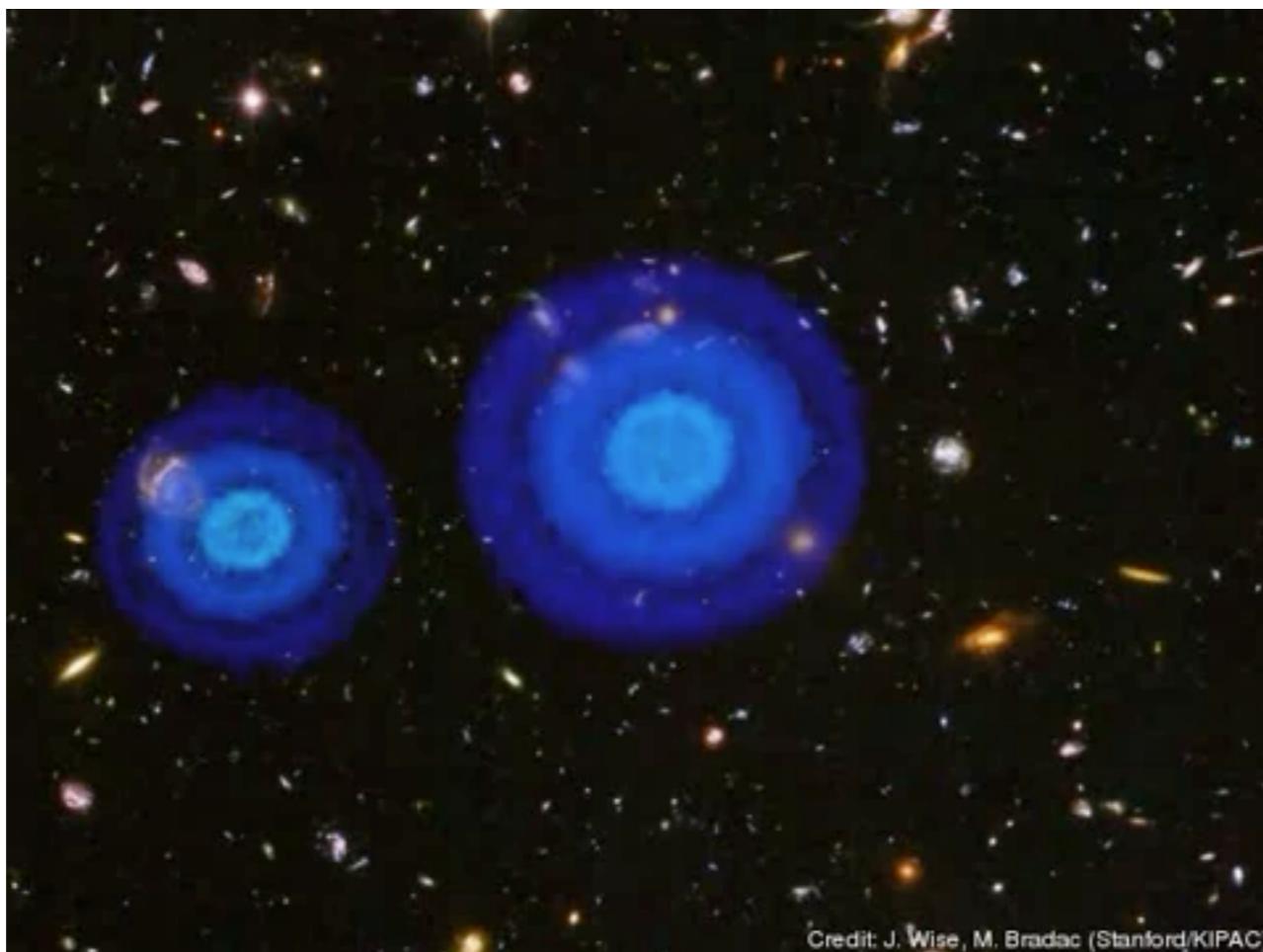


Fig. 1. MOND rotation curves compared to observed HI rotation curves for the four galaxies from the sample of BBS with Cepheid-based distances. The dotted, long-dashed, and short-dashed lines are the Newtonian rotation curves of the stellar disc, bulge, and gaseous components respectively.

Dark matter really ? or modified gravity ?

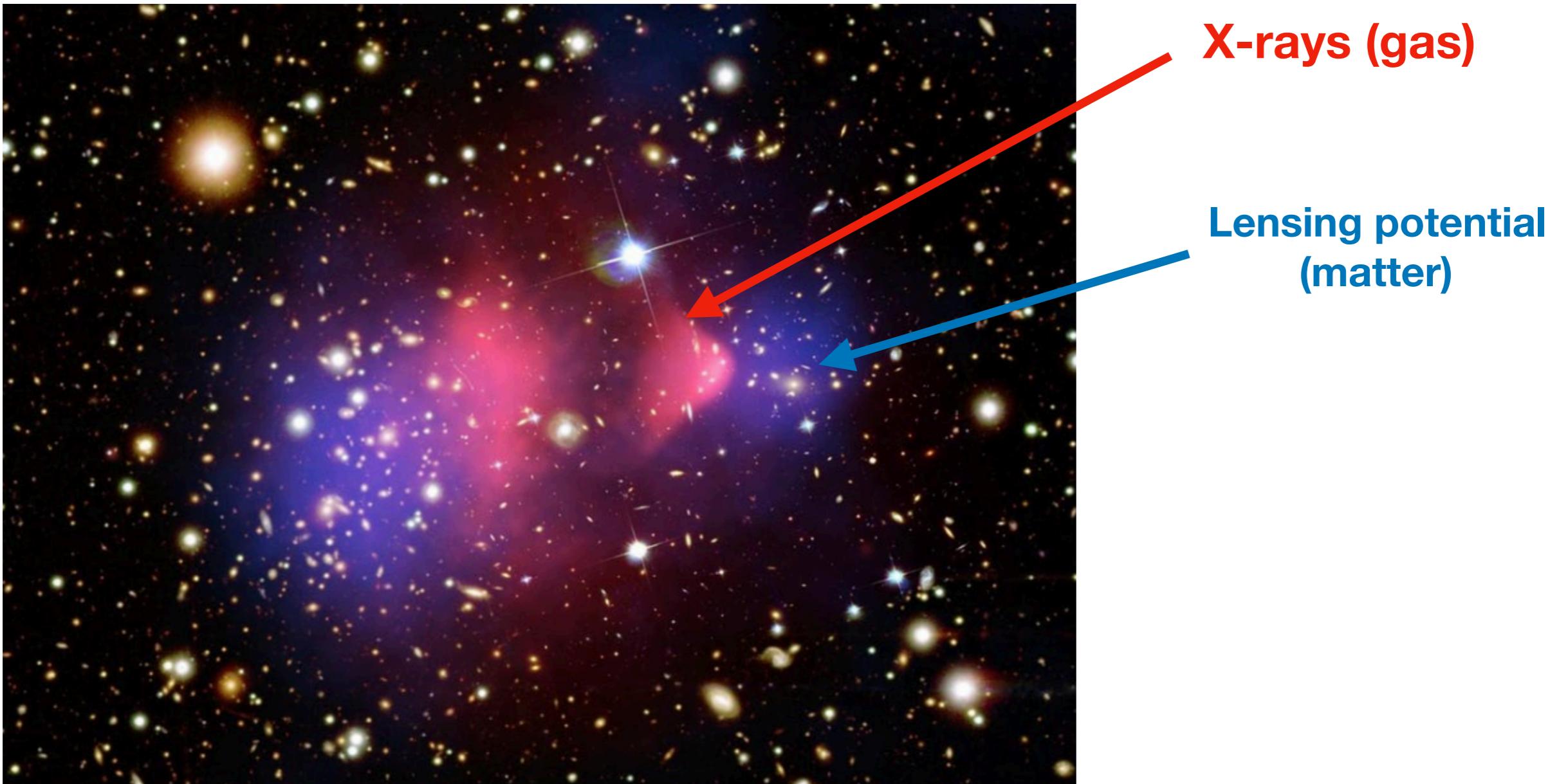
More challenging for modified gravity : the bullet cluster



Credit: J. Wise, M. Bradac (Stanford/KIPAC)

Dark matter really ? or modified gravity ?

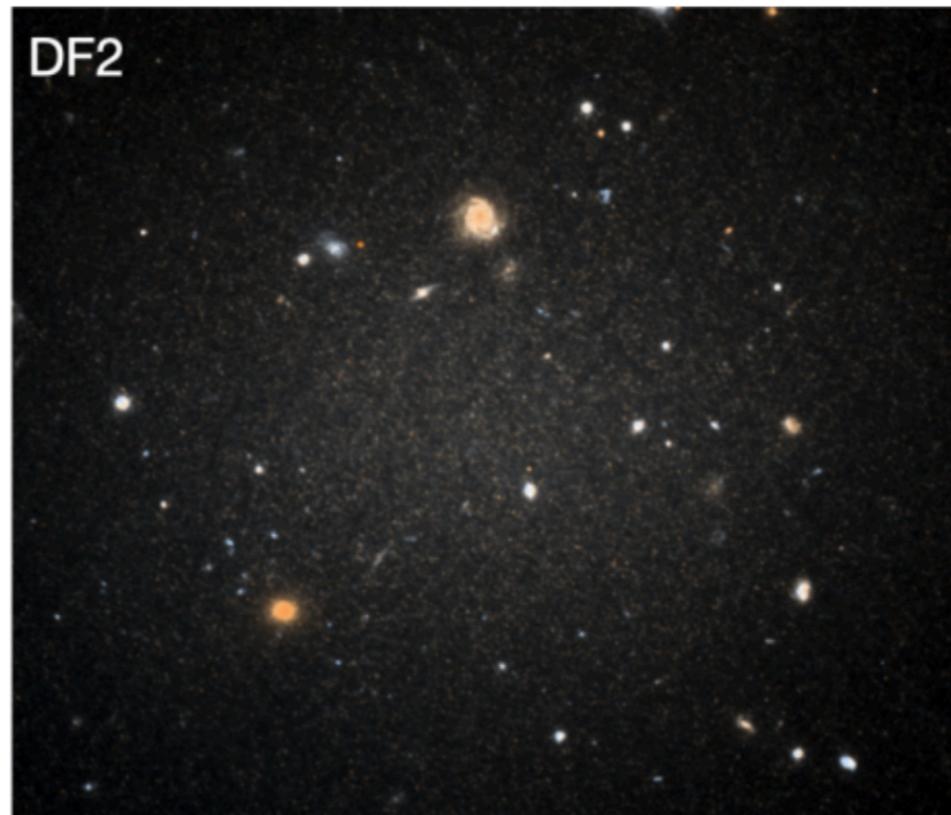
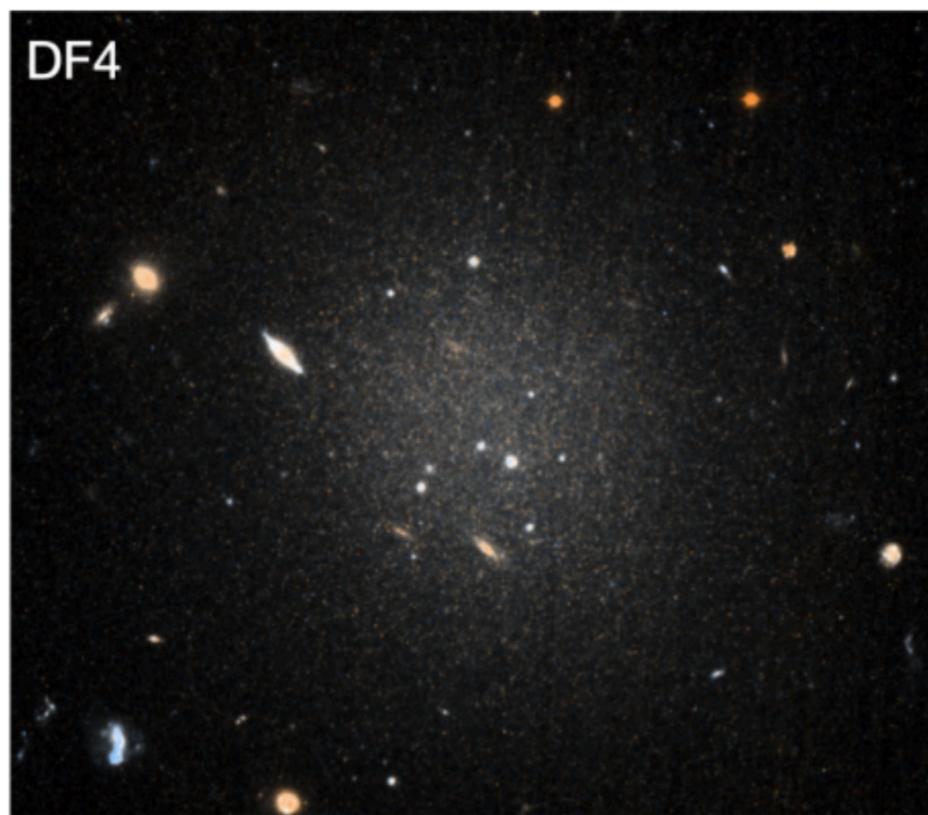
More challenging for modified gravity : the bullet cluster



Dark matter really ? or modified gravity ?

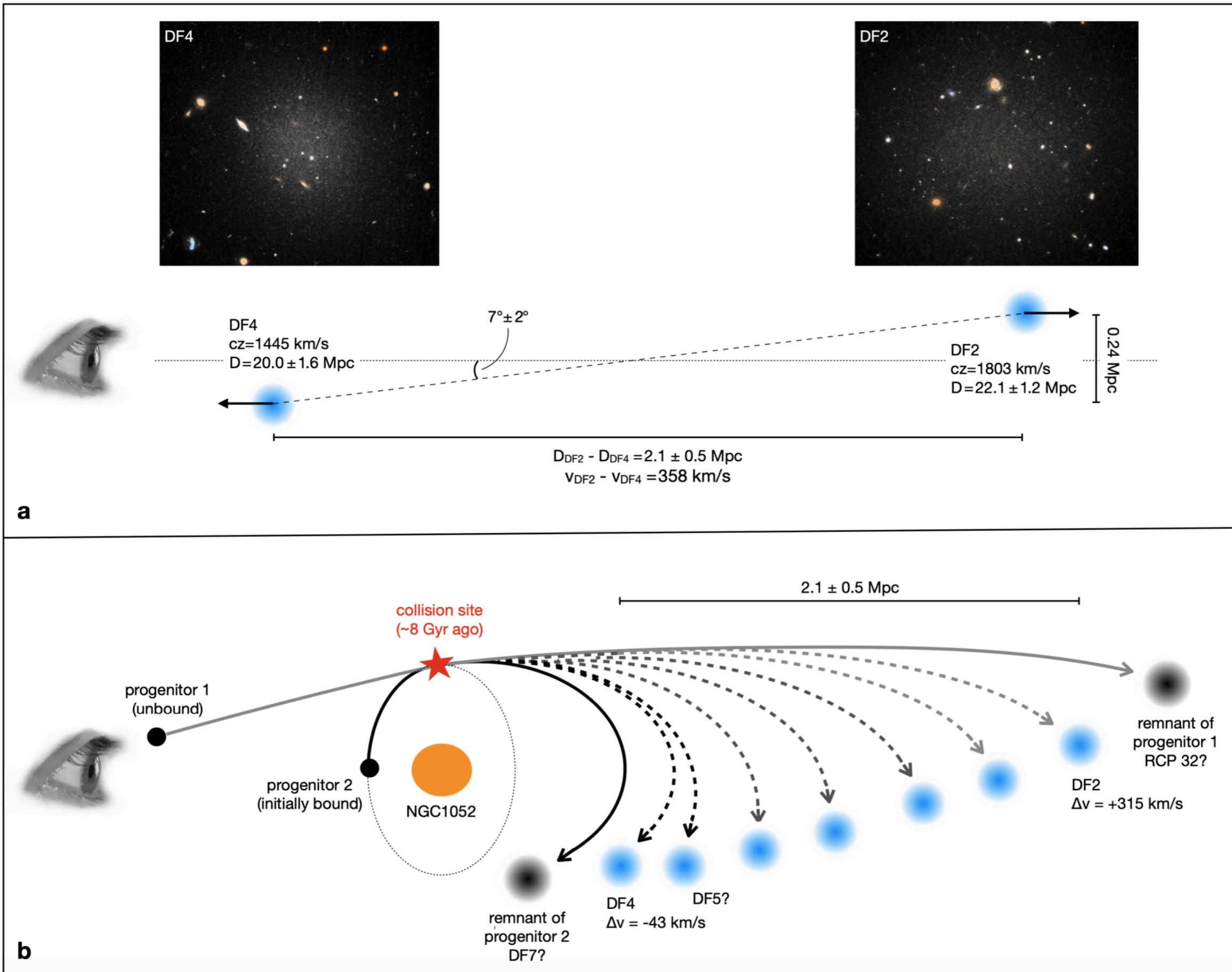
Some galaxies seems to have a deficit on dark matter

NGC 1052-DF2 and NGC 1052-DF4 are ultra diffuse galaxy whose kinematic can be explain without dark matter



e.g <https://www.nature.com/articles/s41586-022-04665-6>

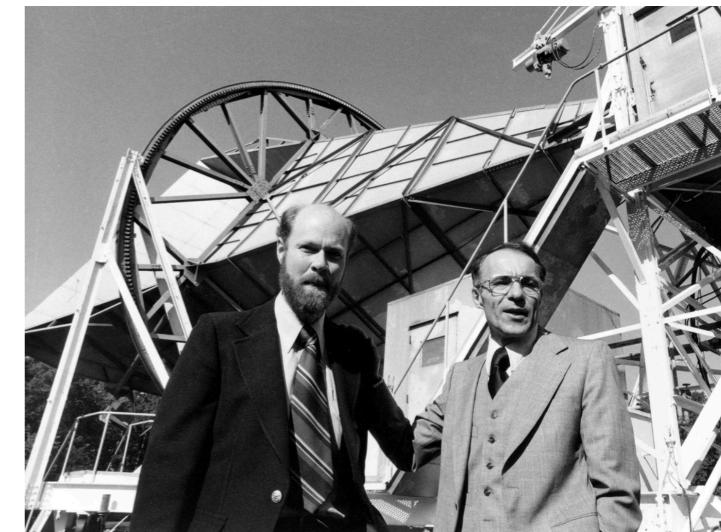
A possible scenario: (still controversial)



The fact that DM do not interact with baryonic matter is key to understand the CMB and LSS distribution, in the following we will discuss how exactly CMB physics depends on the matter content in the universe

The cosmic microwave background

First discovered in 1964 by Penzias and Wilson
Their measurement clearly showing the presence
of the microwave background, with their
instrument having an excess 4.2K antenna
temperature which they could not account for.

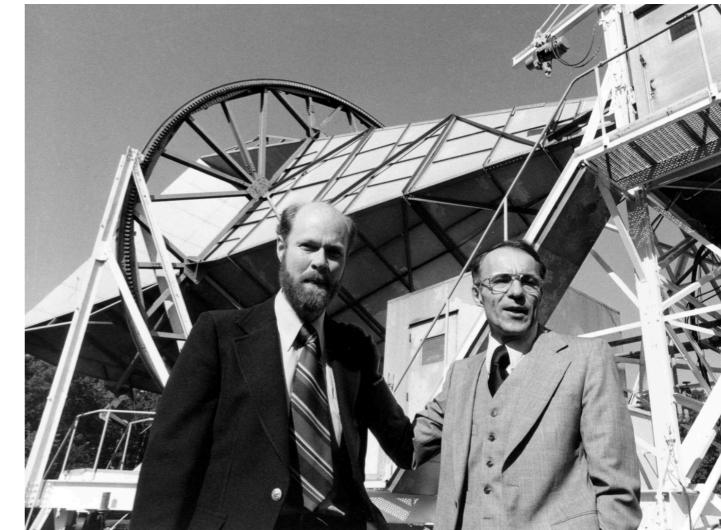


<https://articles.adsabs.harvard.edu/full/seri/ApJ..0142/0000418.000.html>

Fun fact: Penzias phoned a friend at MIT, for unrelated reason.
Burke asked about the progress of the experiment, Burke had
Recently spoken with one of his colleague Ken Turner, who was just back from a visit
at Princeton, during which he had followed a seminar by Peebles about
nucleosynthesis and possible relic radiation.

The cosmic microwave background

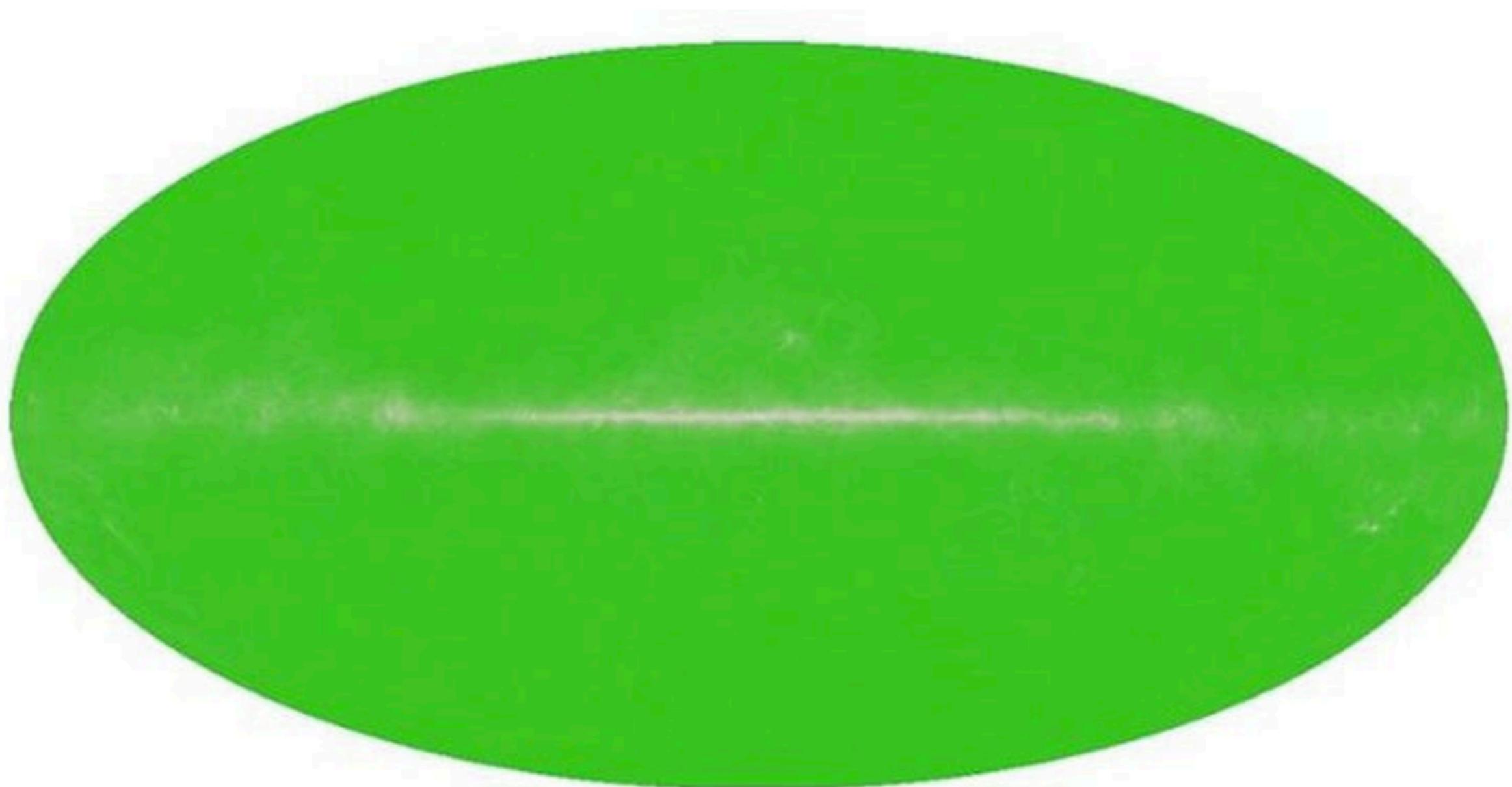
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Recently spoken with one of his colleague Ken Turner, who was just back from a visit
at Princeton, during which he had followed a seminar by Peebles about
nucleosynthesis and possible relic radiation.

**The signal observed by Penzias and Wilson was a feature
predicted by hot big band theory**

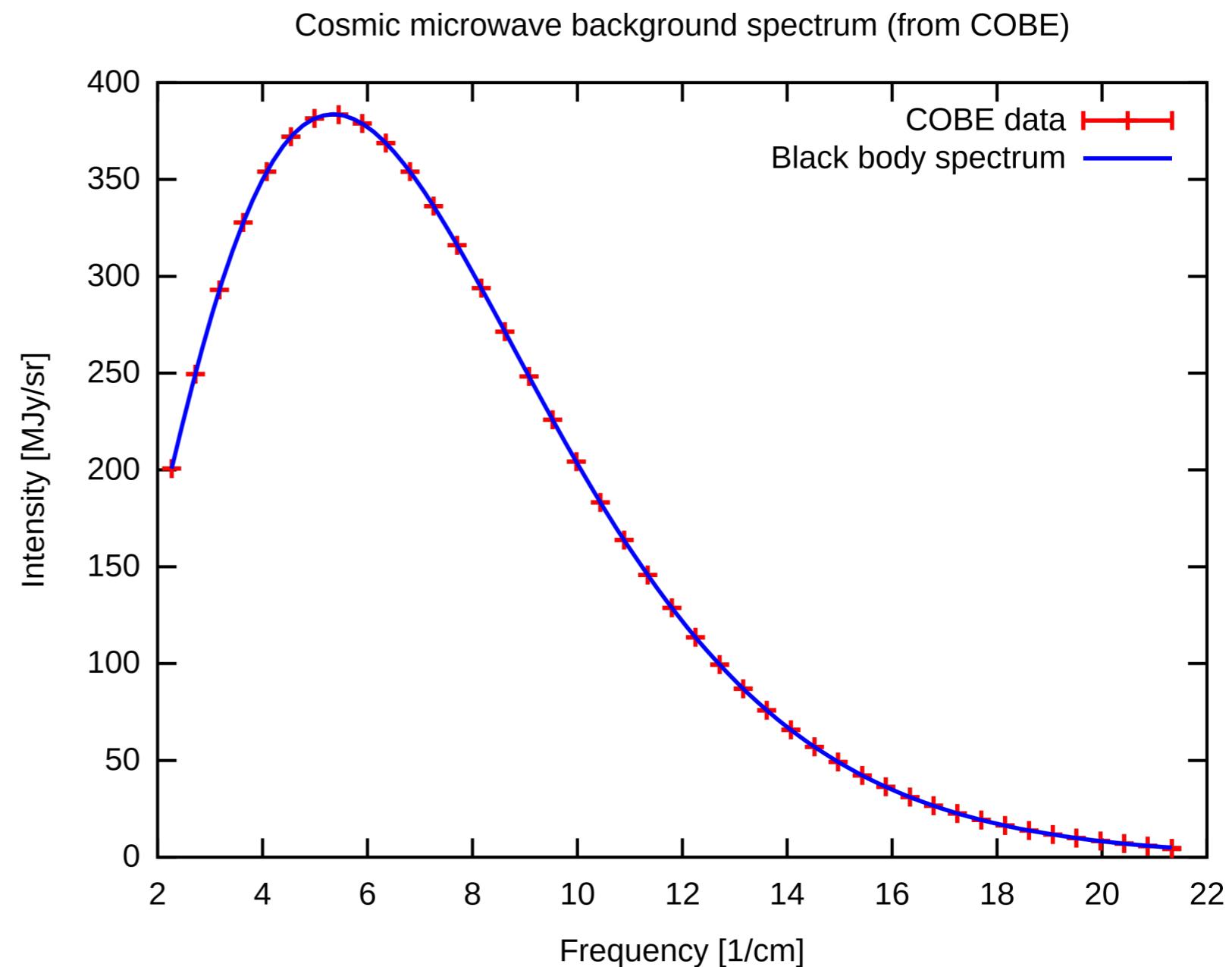


According to the original observations of Penzias and Wilson, the galactic plane emitted some astrophysical sources of radiation (center), but above and below, all that remained was a near-perfect, uniform background of radiation. (NASA / WMAP SCIENCE TEAM)

The cosmic microwave background

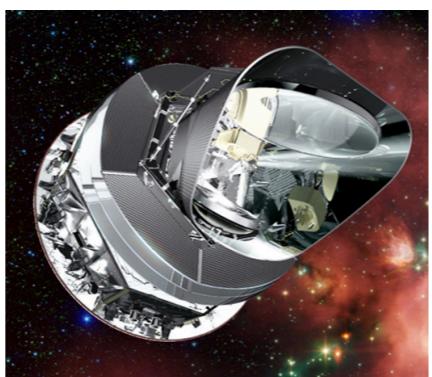
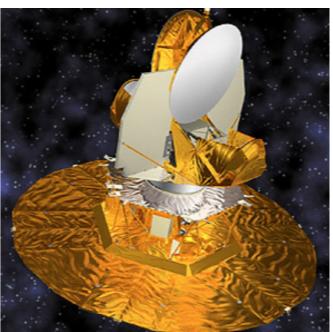
1990 – FIRAS (Far InfraRed Absolute Spectrophotometer) on the Cosmic Background Explorer (COBE) satellite measures the black body form of the CMB spectrum with exquisite precision

https://articles.adsabs.harvard.edu/cgi-bin/nph-iarticle_query?1990ApJ...354L..37M&classic=YES



The cosmic microwave background

Since then the focus has been on measuring the anisotropies of the cosmic microwave background



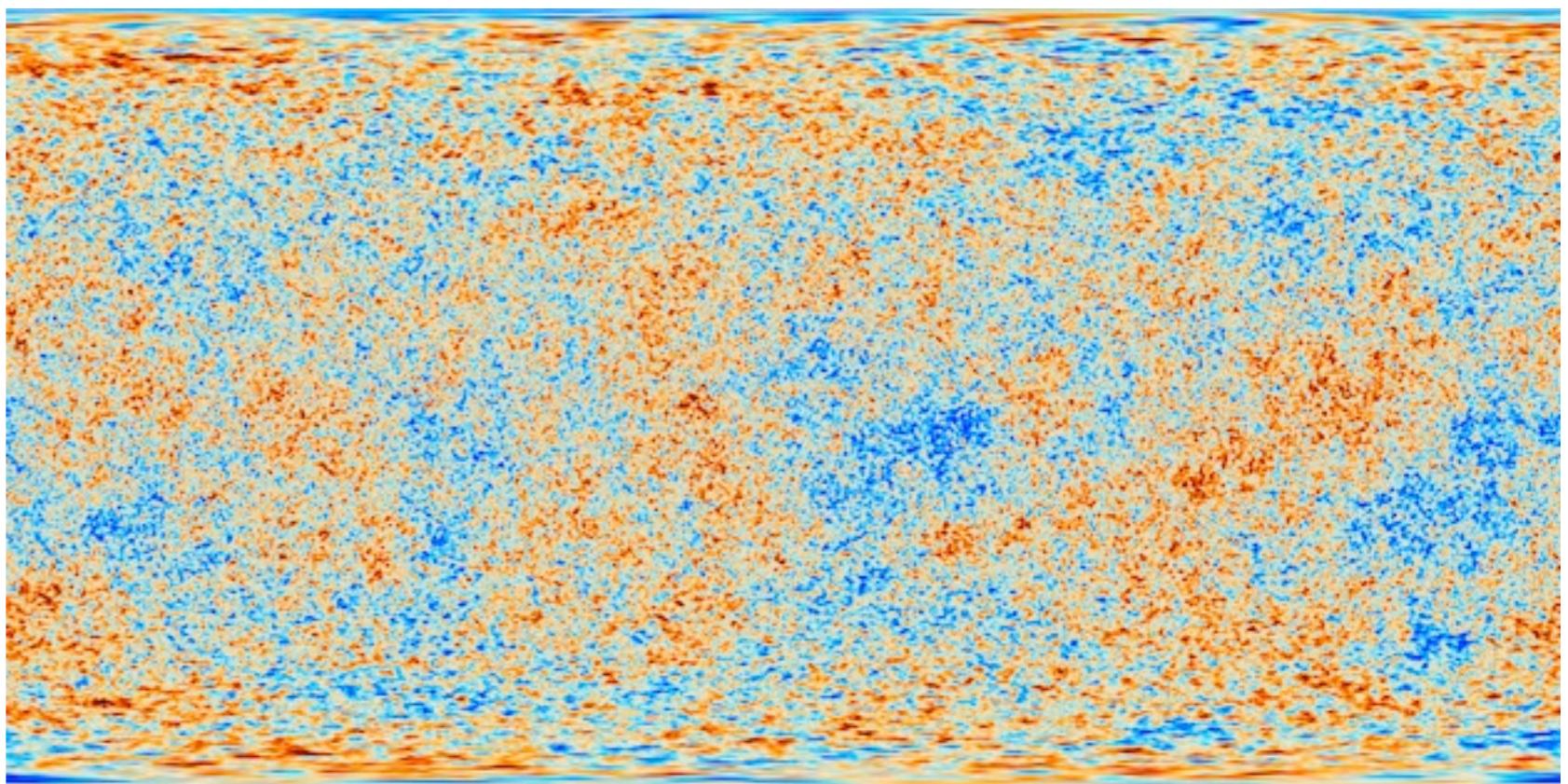
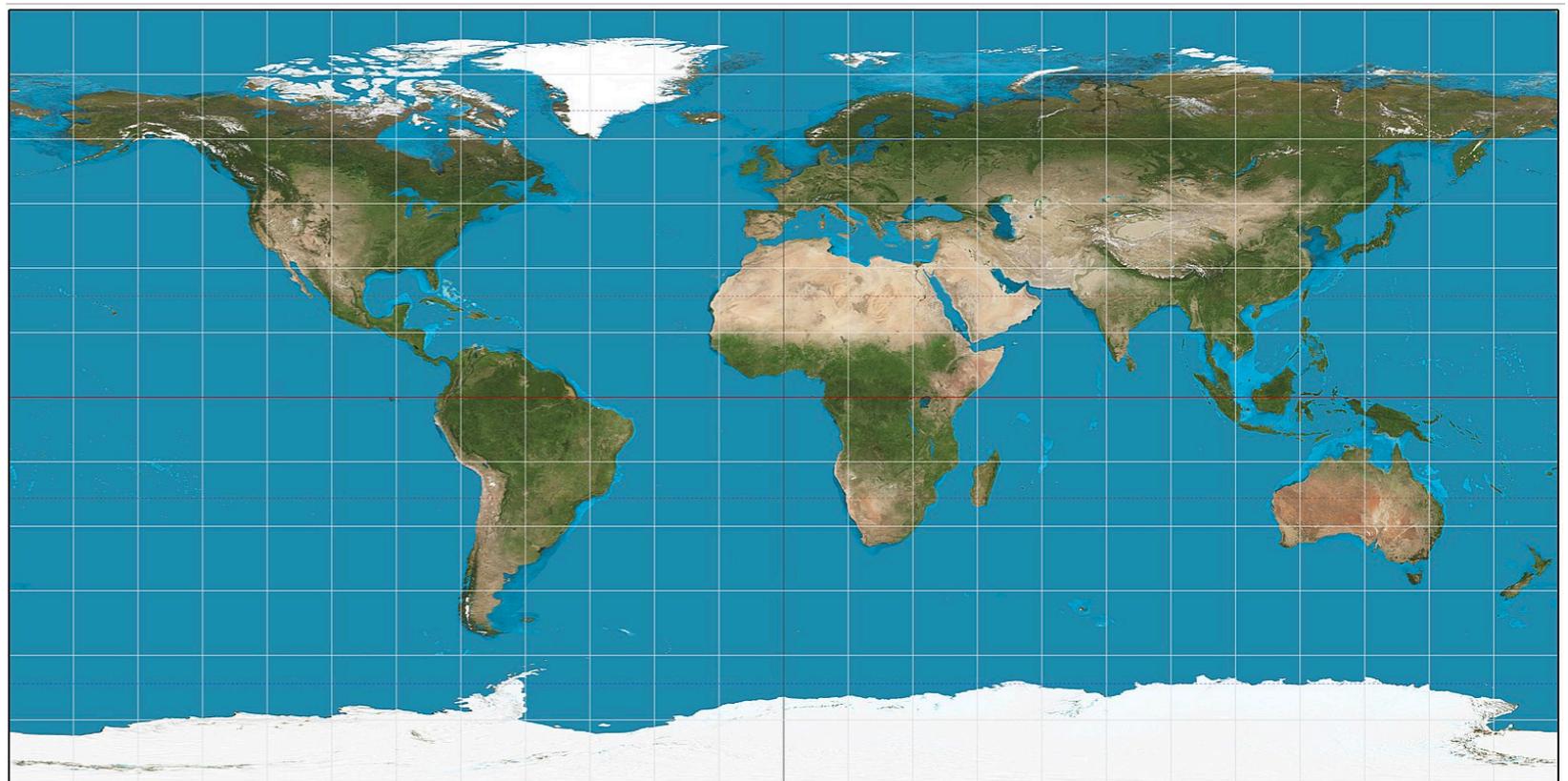
COBE
(1992)

WMAP
(2003)

Planck
(2013)

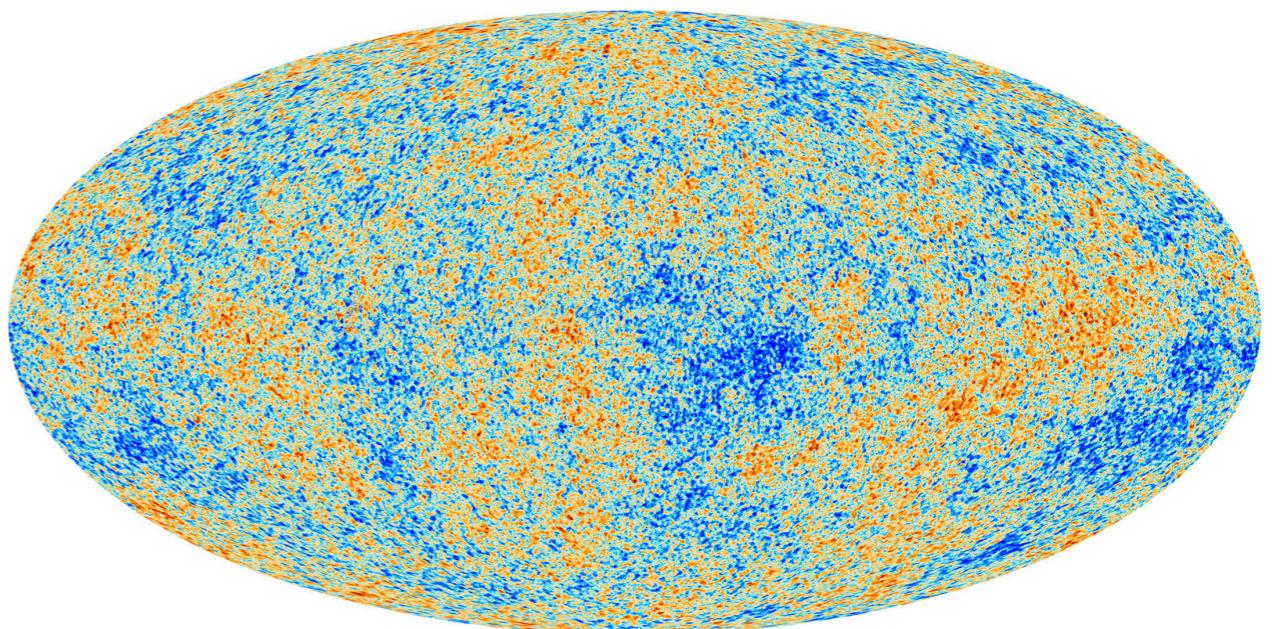
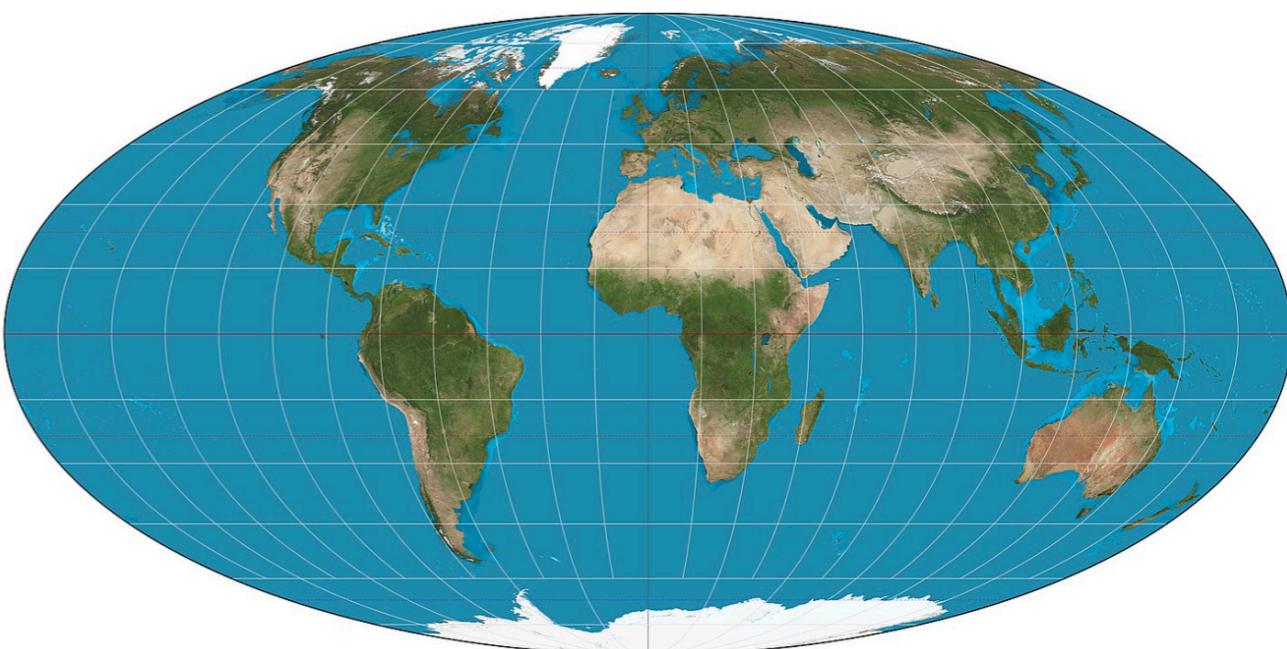
About projection

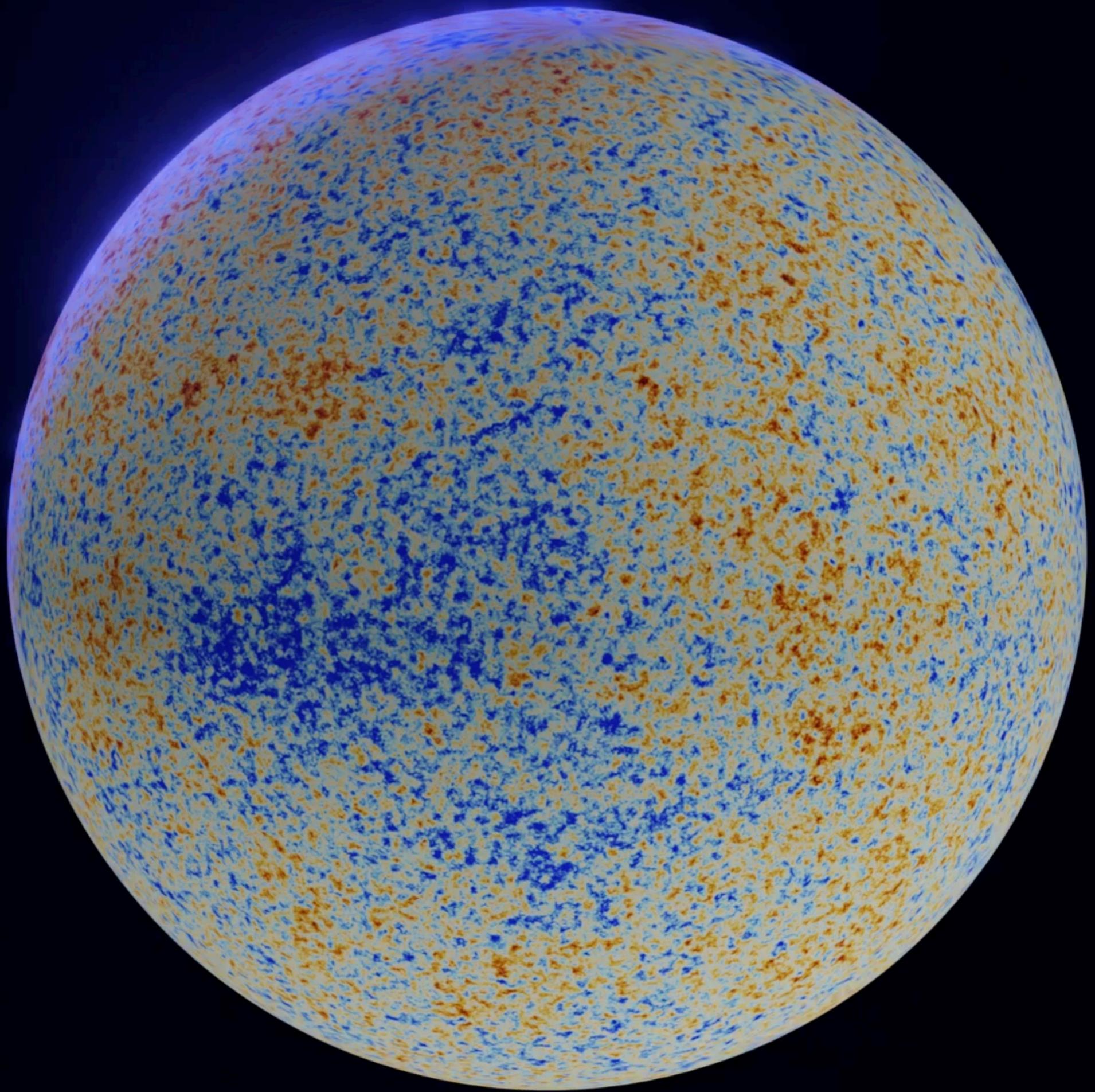
Equirectangular projection
leads to strong distortions
at the poles



About projection

The standard in the CMB community is to use the Mollweide projection which preserves accuracy of proportions in area



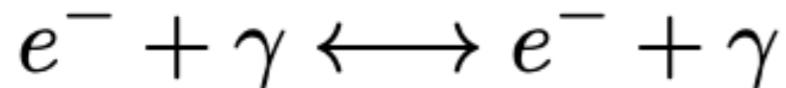


**So what do we actually measure
when we look at the cosmic
microwave background
anisotropies?**

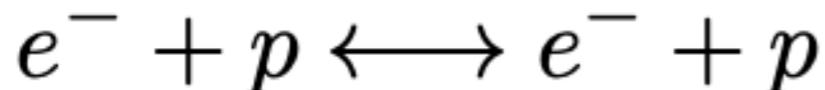
The early universe is composed of a plasma with four different components: Photons, Neutrinos, Dark Matter, Baryons

This 4 species influence together in the following way

Photons and electrons interact via
Compton scattering



Electrons and protons interact via
Coulomb scattering

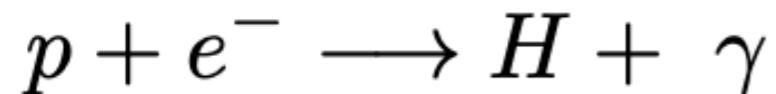


Neutrinos interact via weak interaction



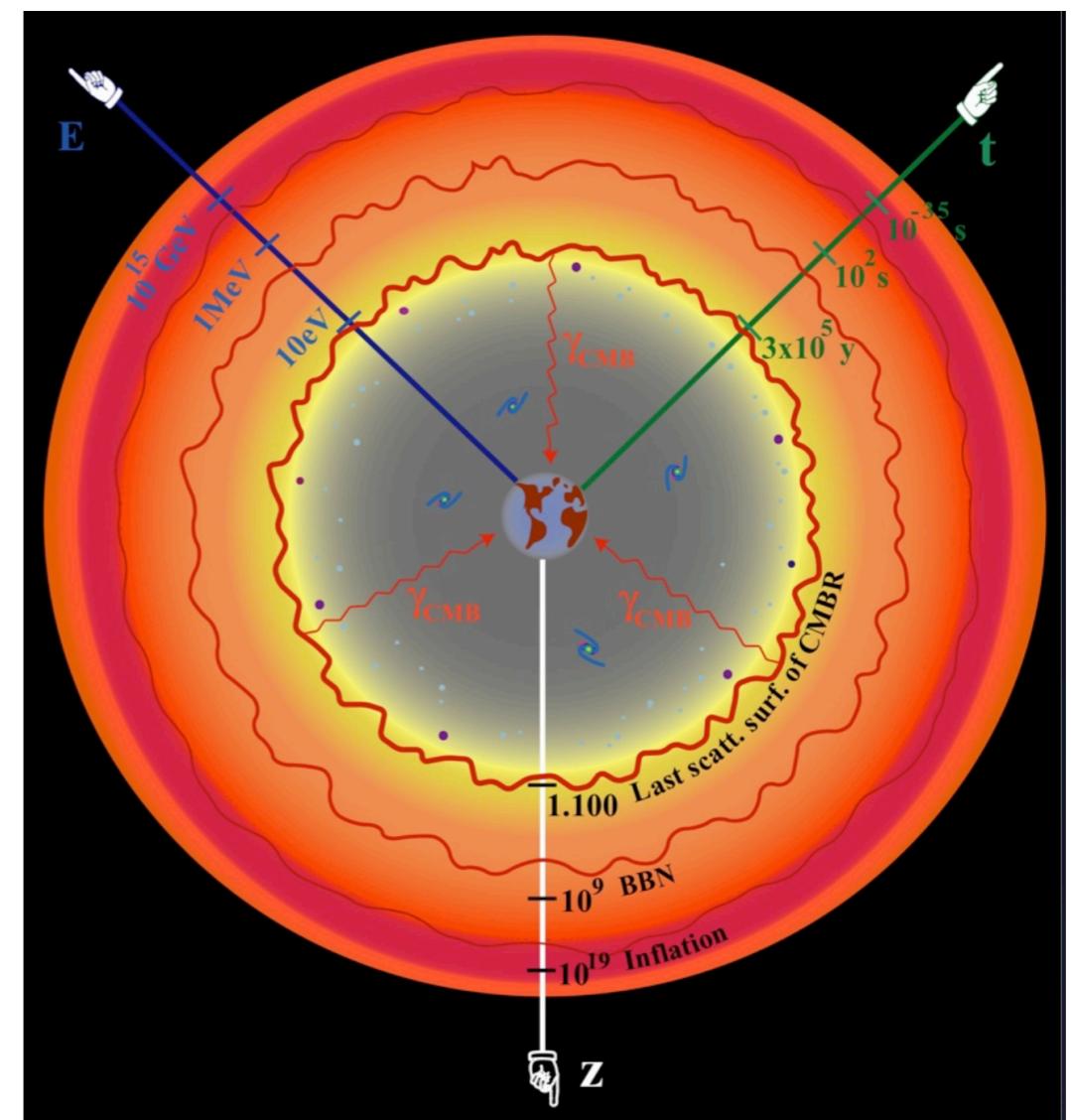
Dark matter only interacts gravitationally

At a redshift around $z = 1100$, $T = 3 \text{ eV} = 3000 \text{ K}$, Compton scattering of electrons and photons become inefficient and electrons and protons can recombine into hydrogen atoms (and some helium) the CMB is emitted



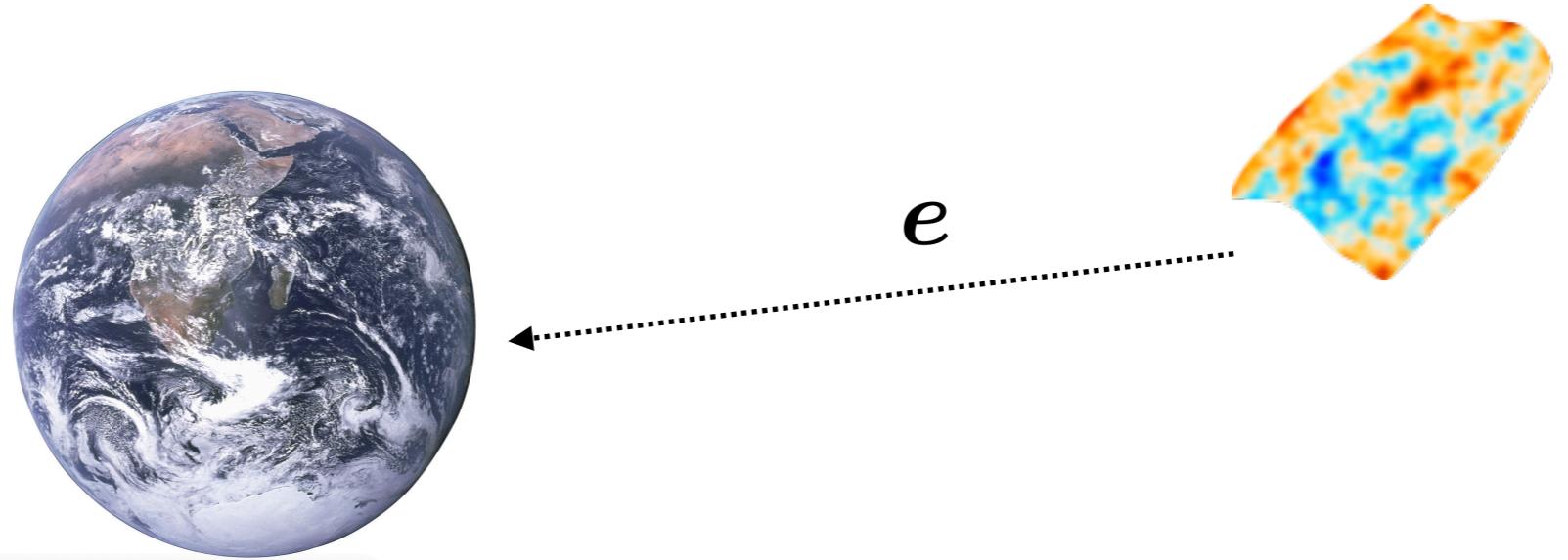
The photons free stream towards us
And we observe the average
CMB temperature today with

$$T_{z=0, \text{CMB}} = \frac{T_{z=z_{\text{rec}}, \text{CMB}}}{1 + z_{\text{rec}}} = 2.7 \text{ K}$$



Observed CMB
temperature

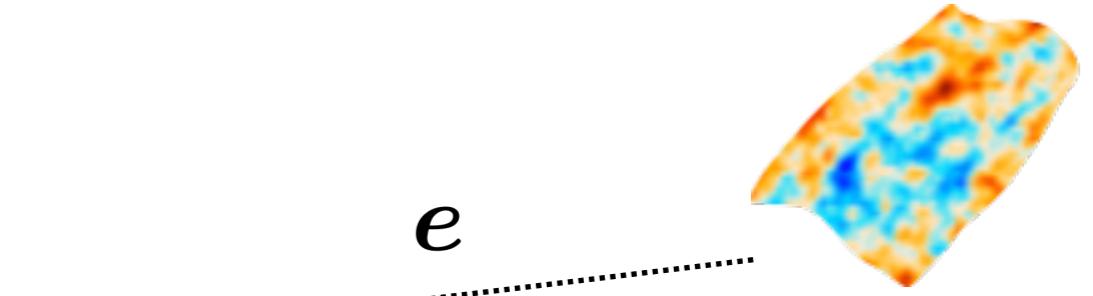
$$\Theta = \Theta(\mathbf{x}_{\text{Earth}}, \hat{\mathbf{n}}, t_0)$$



Observed CMB
temperature

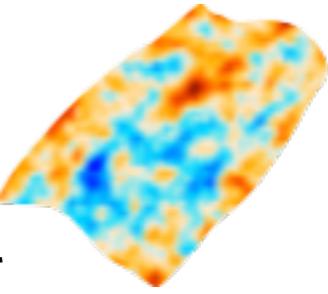
$$\Theta = \Theta(\mathbf{x}_{\text{Earth}}, \hat{\mathbf{n}}, t_0)$$

$$\Theta \Big|_{\eta_R} = (\Theta_0 + \psi) \Big|_{\eta_*} + \mathbf{e} \mathbf{u}_b \Big|_{\eta_*} + 2 \int_{\eta_*}^{\eta_R} \dot{\psi} d\eta$$



Observed CMB
temperature

$$\Theta = \Theta(\mathbf{x}_{\text{Earth}}, \hat{\mathbf{n}}, t_0)$$



e

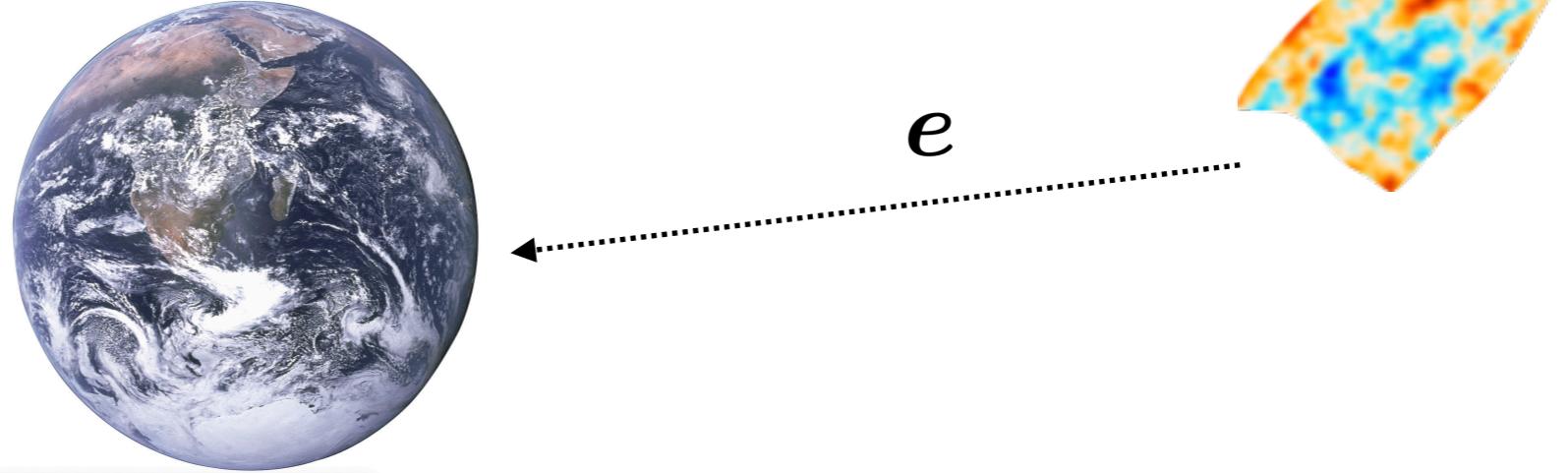
$$\Theta \Big|_{\eta_R} = (\Theta_0 + \psi) \Big|_{\eta_*} + \mathbf{e} \mathbf{u}_b \Big|_{\eta_*} + 2 \int_{\eta_*}^{\eta_R} \dot{\psi} d\eta$$

« Monopole »: local temperature of
The CMB on the last scattering surface

$$\Theta_0(\mathbf{x}_{\text{LSS}}, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d\hat{\mathbf{p}} \Theta(\hat{\mathbf{p}}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{LSS}}, t)$$

Observed CMB temperature

$$\Theta = \Theta(\mathbf{x}_{\text{Earth}}, \hat{\mathbf{n}}, t_0)$$



$$\Theta \Big|_{\eta_R} = (\Theta_0 + \psi) \Big|_{\eta_*} + \mathbf{e} \mathbf{u}_b \Big|_{\eta_*} + 2 \int_{\eta_*}^{\eta_R} \dot{\psi} d\eta$$

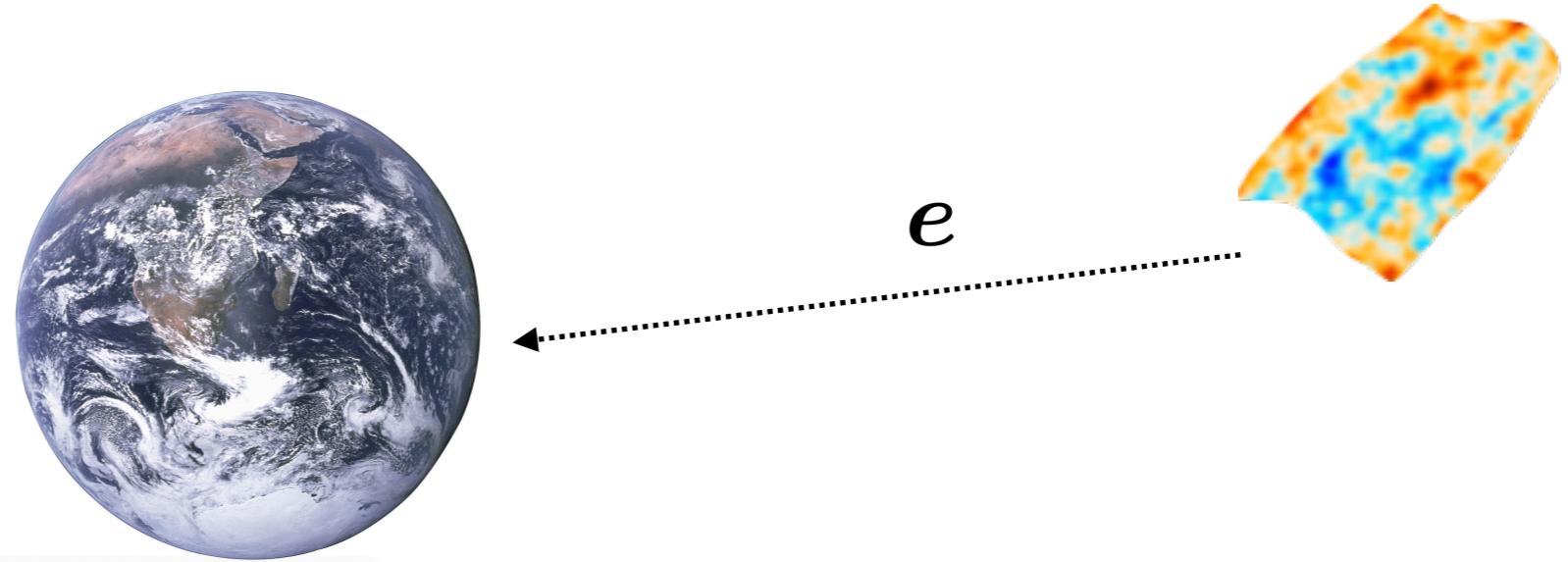
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Gravitational potential
-> Gravitational doppler effect

Observed CMB temperature

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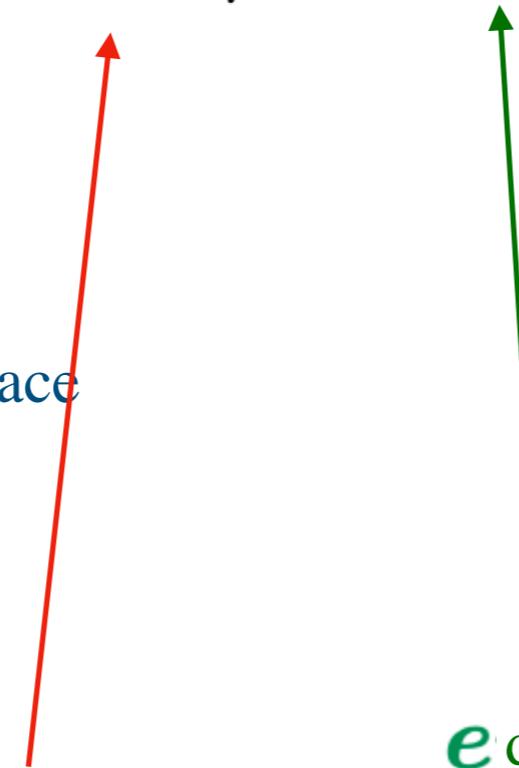


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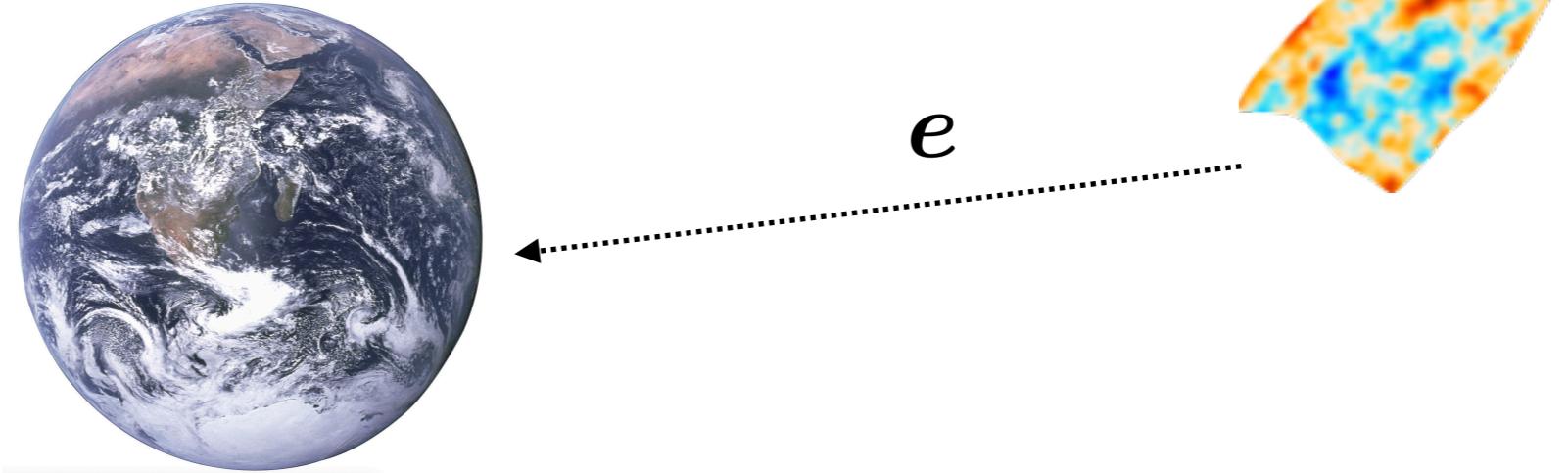


\mathbf{e} direction of
propagation of photons

\mathbf{v}_b velocity of the
baryons-photons fluid at decoupling
-> Standard doppler effect

Observed CMB temperature

$$\Theta = \Theta(\mathbf{x}_{\text{Earth}}, \hat{\mathbf{n}}, t_0)$$



$$\Theta \Big|_{\eta_R} = (\Theta_0 + \psi) \Big|_{\eta_*} + \mathbf{e} \mathbf{u}_b \Big|_{\eta_*} + 2 \int_{\eta_*}^{\eta_R} \dot{\psi} d\eta$$

« Monopole »: local temperature of
The CMB on the last scattering surface

$$\Theta_0(\mathbf{x}_{\text{LSS}}, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d\hat{\mathbf{p}} \Theta(\hat{\mathbf{p}}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{LSS}}, t)$$

Gravitational potential
-> Gravitational doppler effect

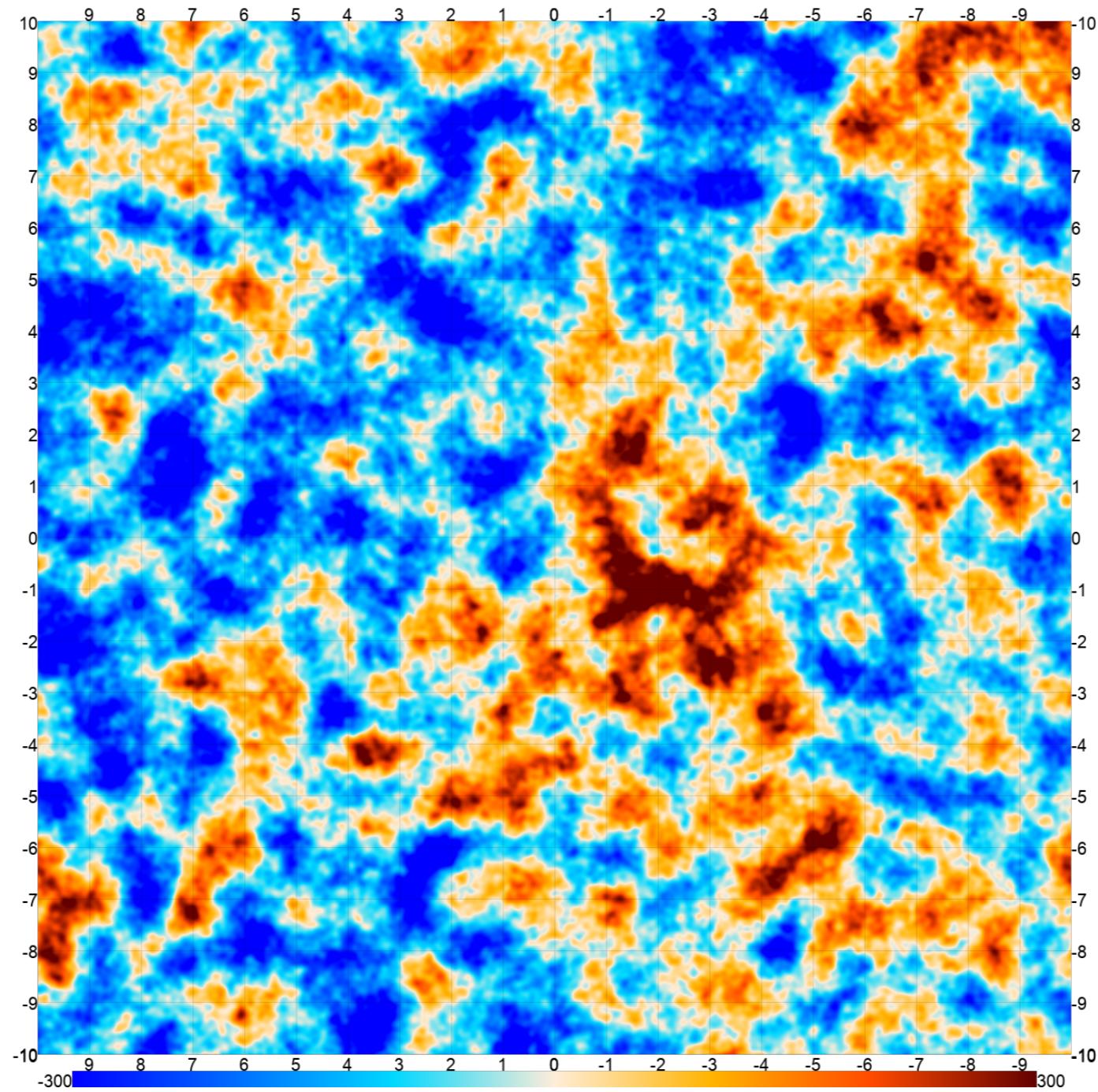


Variations of the gravitational potential
along the path of the photons from
the last scattering surface to us
-> Integrated Sachs Wolfe effect

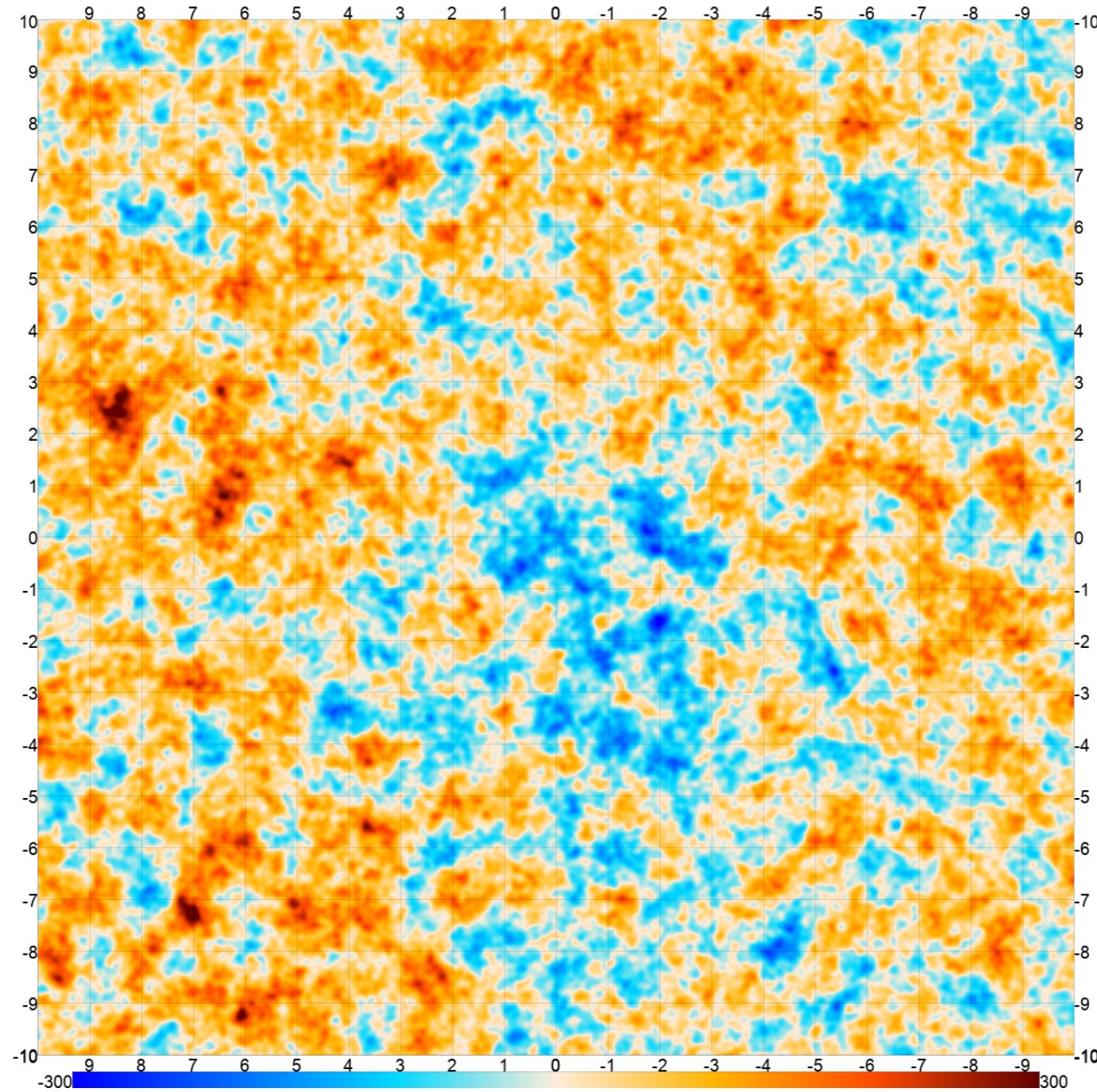
\mathbf{e} direction of
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\mathbf{v}_b velocity of the
baryons-photons fluid at decoupling
-> Standard doppler effect

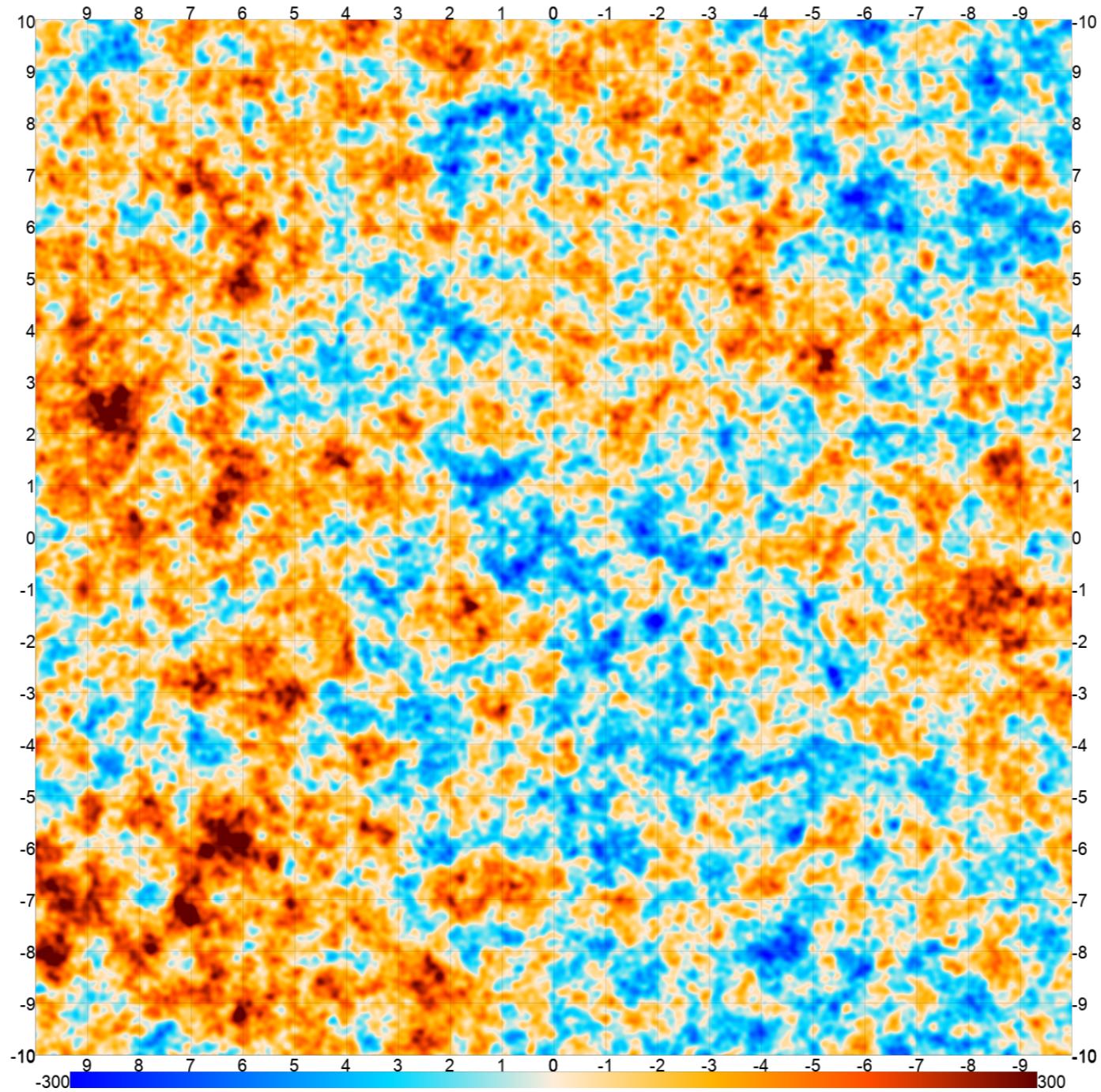
The CMB maps will be the sum of the effect of :
the local temperature on the LSS



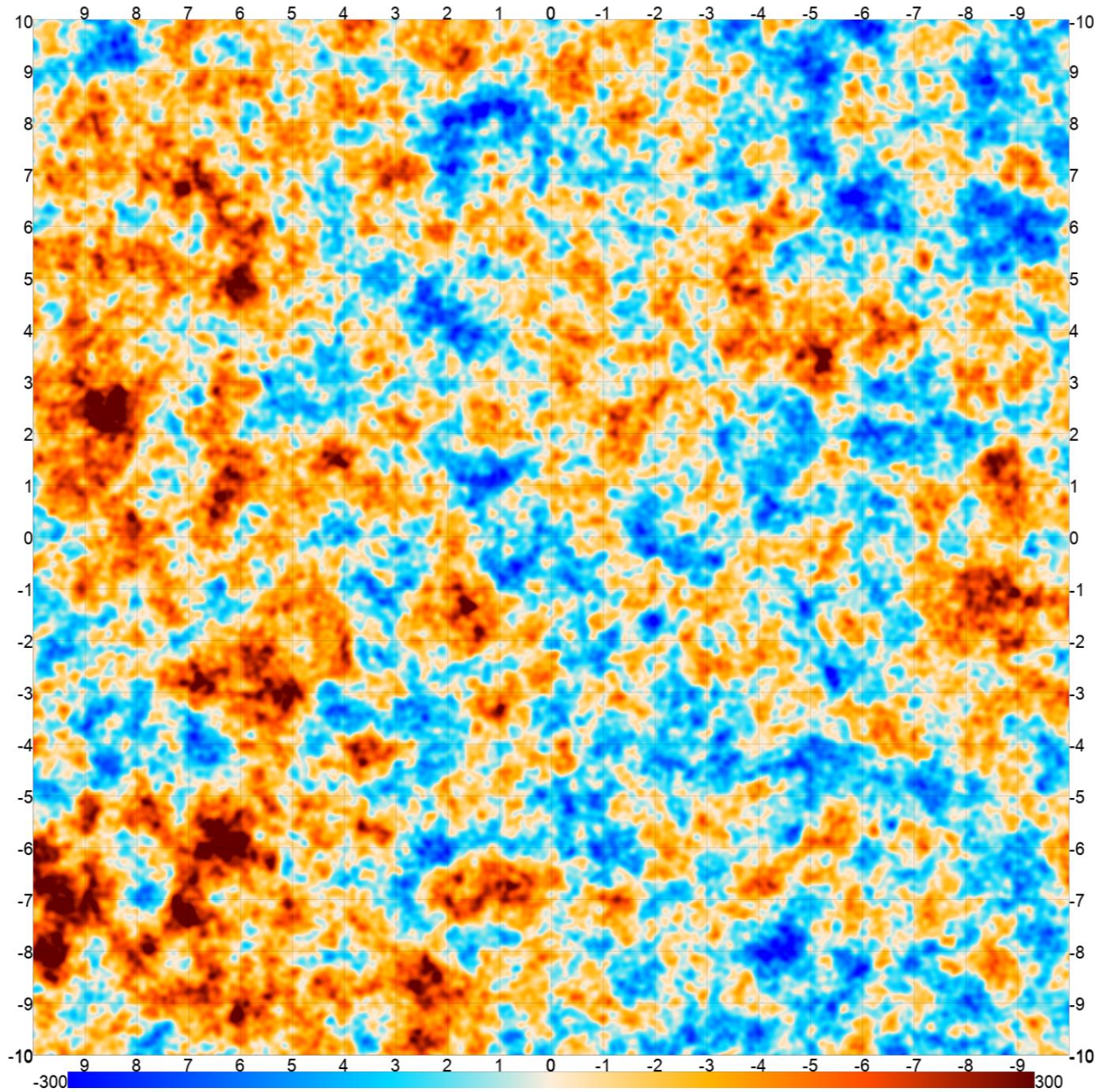
The CMB maps will be the sum of the effect of :
the local temperature on the LSS + The gravitational doppler effect

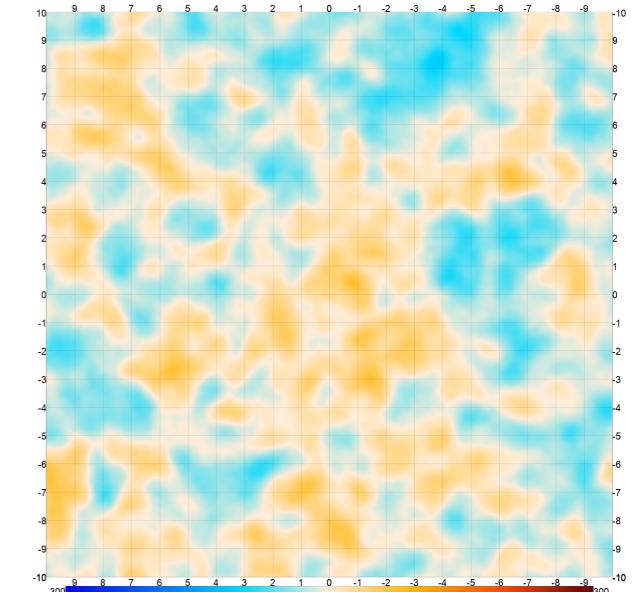
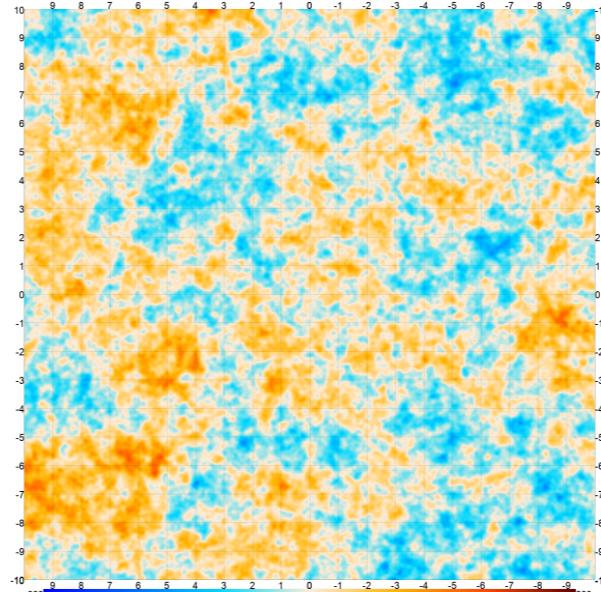
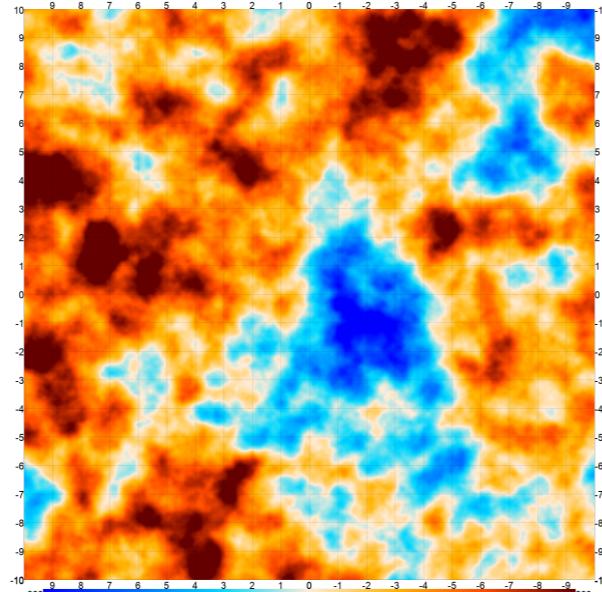
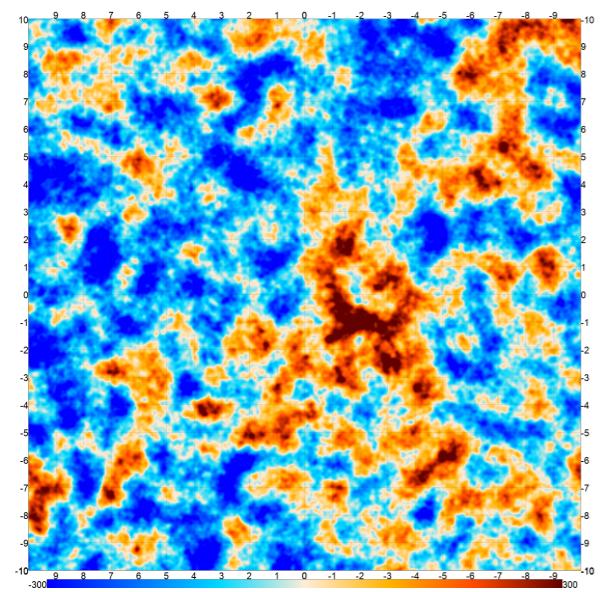


The CMB maps will be the sum of the effect of :
the local temperature on the LSS + The gravitational doppler effect +
+ the kinematic doppler effect

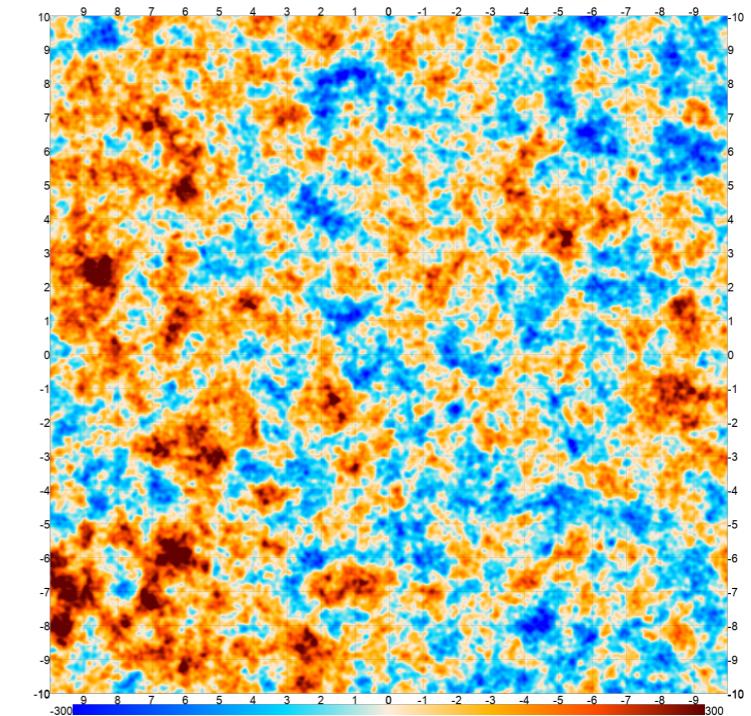


The CMB maps will be the sum of the effect of :
the local temperature on the LSS + The gravitational doppler effect +
+ the kinematic doppler effect + the ISW effect



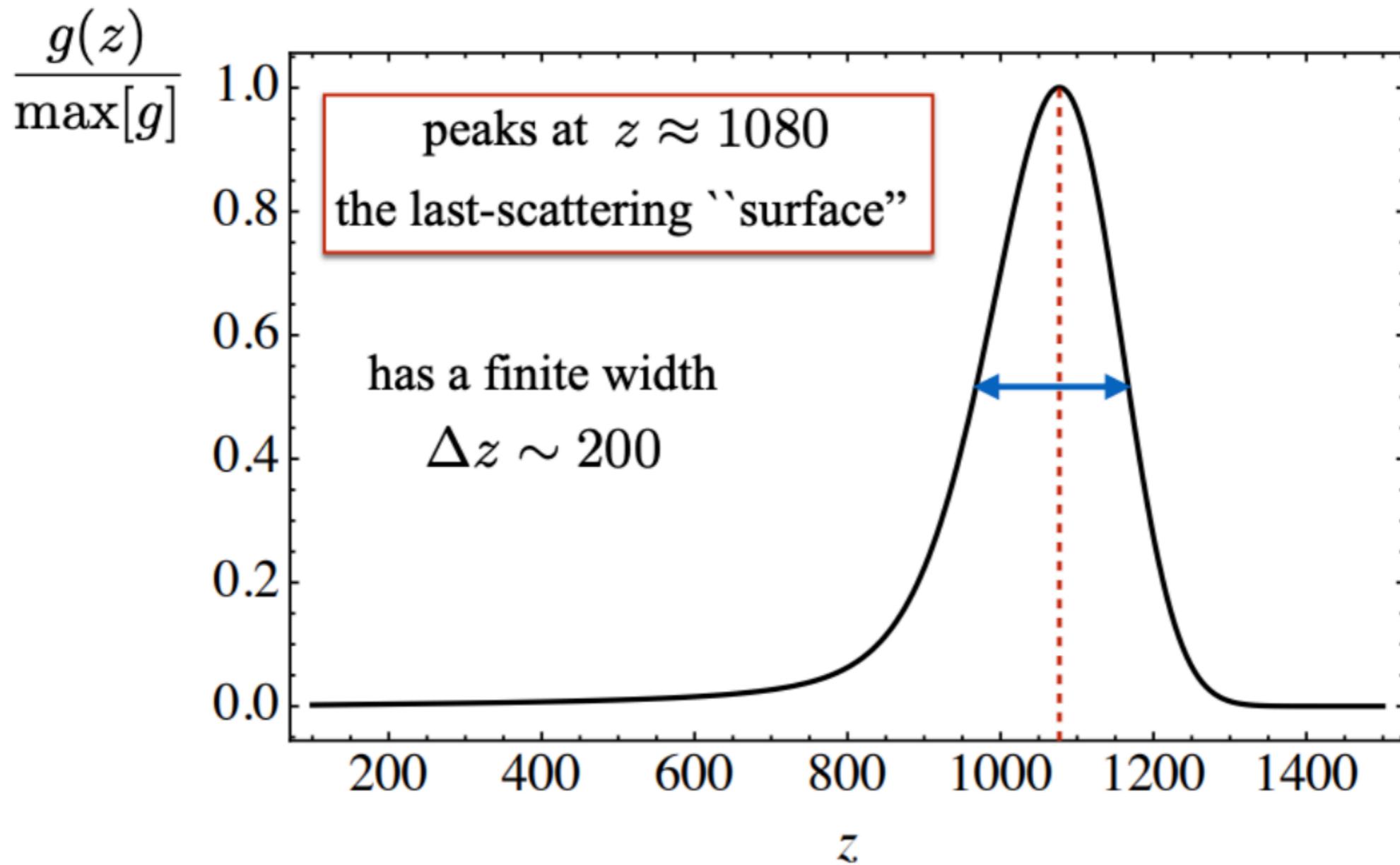
Θ_0 ψ eu_b $\dot{\psi}$ 

$$\Theta \Big|_{\eta_R} = (\Theta_0 + \psi) \Big|_{\eta_*} + eu_b|_{\eta_*} + 2 \int_{\eta_*}^{\eta_R} \dot{\psi} d\eta$$



In reality, the Universe transition from opaque to transparent is not instantaneous, So we have to introduce the visibility function.

It's a function that represent the probability that a photon last scatters at a given redshift:



The last scattering surface has a finite **thickness**

This modify our formula into

$$\Theta \Big|_{\eta_R} = \int_0^{\eta_R} d\eta g(\eta) [(\Theta_0 + \psi) + \mathbf{e} \mathbf{u}_b] + 2 \int_0^{\eta_R} d\eta \exp(-\tau) \dot{\psi}$$

Fundamental equation of CMB anisotropies

So the right hand side is the source of the temperature anisotropies observed today

This modify our formula into

$$\Theta \Big|_{\eta_R} = \int_0^{\eta_R} d\eta g(\eta) [(\Theta_0 + \psi) + \mathbf{e} \mathbf{u}_b] + 2 \int_0^{\eta_R} d\eta \exp(-\tau) \dot{\psi}$$

Fundamental equation of CMB anisotropies

So the right hand side is the source of the temperature anisotropies observed today

The question become, how do we compute each terms of this expression ?
In order to compute the value of the CMB temperature today we therefore need to know:

- What is the local temperature of the plasma at the time the CMB is emitted
- What is the evolution of the gravitational potential wells in the Universe
- What is the plasma velocity
- What is the visibility function, i.e, how does the free electron density varies

The first thing we need is a metric, that tells us how stuff moves in the universe
In this course we will use the perturbed FLRW metric in Newtonian gauge

$$ds^2 = -(1 + 2\psi(\mathbf{x}, t))dt^2 + a^2(t)\delta_{ij}[1 + 2\phi(\mathbf{x}, t)]dx^i dx^j$$

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ϕ is the perturbation to the spatial curvature, it can be interpreted as a local perturbation to the scale factor $a(\mathbf{x}, t) = a(t)\sqrt{1 + 2\phi(\mathbf{x}, t)}$

At the time of CMB emission $\phi, \psi \sim 10^{-4}$

so any higher order term can be dropped

Then we use two set of equations:

The first set tells us how gravity responds to the matter-energy content of the Universe, there are the Einstein equations, they tell us about the evolution of the gravitational potential wells in the Universe

$$k^2\phi + 3\frac{a'}{a}\left(\phi' - \psi\frac{a'}{a}\right) = 4\pi G a^2 \delta\rho$$
$$k^2(\phi + \psi) \sim 0$$

Einstein equations

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$$k^2(\phi + \psi) \sim 0$$

This equation is the generalization of the Poisson equation in general relativity in the newtonian limit, it take the familiar form

$$-\nabla^2\phi = 4\pi G a^2 \delta\rho \quad \delta\rho = \rho_c \delta_c + \rho_b \delta_b + \rho_\gamma \delta_\gamma + \rho_\nu \delta_\nu$$

The extra terms are there to take into account the expansion of the universe

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$$k^2\phi + 3\frac{a'}{a}\left(\phi' - \psi\frac{a'}{a}\right) = 4\pi G a^2 \delta\rho$$

$$k^2(\phi + \psi) \sim 0$$

This equation tell us that the two potentials are approximately equal in magnitude and opposite in sign

The second set tells us about how the perturbations evolves, and are called the Boltzmann equations

These equations tell us about the dynamics of each components of the plasma

$$\Theta' + ik\mu \Theta = -\phi' - ik\mu\psi - \tau' \left[\Theta_0 - \Theta + \mu u_b - \frac{1}{2} P_2 \mu \Pi \right]$$

$$\delta'_c + iku_c = -3\phi'$$

$$u'_c + \frac{a'}{a} u_c = -ik \psi$$

$$\delta'_b + iku_b = -3\phi'$$

$$u'_b + \frac{a'}{a} u_b = -ik \psi + \frac{\tau'}{R} [u_b + 3i\Theta_1]$$

δ_c, δ_b Dark matter and baryons overdensity

u_c, u_b Dark matter and baryons velocity

While it would take too long to re-derive all of these equations here, we can gain some intuition by re-deriving the ones followed by dark matter.

The main tool for deriving Boltzmann equation is the distribution function.
Let's consider a set of particles occupying some region of space,
These particles are completely described by their positions and momenta $\{\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{p}_i\}$

We can define a distribution function $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t)$ which relate to the number of particles in a small phase space elements around (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p})

$$N(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t) = f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t)(\Delta x)^3 \frac{(\Delta p)^3}{(2\pi)^3}$$

Number of particles at position x with momentum p at time t

Distribution function

Volume of phase space element

The distribution function can be used to define all macroscopic properties of a collection of particles, e.g the density and energy density

$$n_s(\mathbf{x}, t) = g_s \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f_s(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t)$$

$$\rho_s(\mathbf{x}, t) = g_s \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f_s(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t) E_s(p)$$

$$E_s(p) = \sqrt{p^2 + m_s^2}$$

We can play a bit with these equations, for example by calculating the average number and energy density of CMB photons

For example : Photons are bosons, in equilibrium at temperature T,
They have the following Bose Einstein distribution function

$$f_\gamma(p; T_{\text{CMB}}) = \frac{1}{\exp\left(\frac{p}{T_{\text{CMB}}}\right) - 1}$$

The average density of CMB photons in the universe is given by

$$\begin{aligned} n_\gamma(T_{\text{CMB}}) &= 2 \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{e^{p/T_{\text{CMB}}} - 1} \\ &= \frac{8\pi T_{\text{CMB}}^3}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^2}{e^x - 1} = \frac{\Gamma(3)\zeta(3)T_{\text{CMB}}^3}{\pi^2} = \frac{2\zeta(3)T_{\text{CMB}}^3}{\pi^2} \end{aligned}$$

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Riemann zeta function $\zeta(3) \sim 1.202$

For T=2.7 K, this give us 400 photons/cube centimeter

The Boltzmann equation simply tell us that in the absence of interaction the number of particle is conserved and we have

$$\frac{df(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t)}{dt} = 0$$

In case where there is interaction the equation is modified by the introduction of a collision term

$$\frac{df(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t)}{dt} = C[f]$$

Let's derive the Boltzmann equation follow by dark matter, starting with the evolution of the homogeneous dark matter density, that's the simplest equation since the dark matter is supposedly non interacting, the general relativistic version of the equation is given by

$$\frac{df(x^\mu, P^\mu)}{dt} = 0$$

Where P^μ is the 4-momentum which is given in the FLRW universe

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2(dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2)$$

$$P^\mu = \begin{pmatrix} P^0 \\ P^i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} \\ \frac{p}{a}\hat{p}^i \end{pmatrix}$$

Let's start by expanding the total derivative into a set of partial derivative

$$\frac{df(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{dt} = \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial x^i} \frac{dx^i}{dt} + \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial p} \frac{dp}{dt} + \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial \hat{p}_i} \frac{d\hat{p}_i}{dt}$$

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The equation simplify to

$$\frac{df(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{dt} = \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial p} \frac{dp}{dt}$$

The only thing left to calculate is $\frac{dp}{dt}$ which account for how the momentum of a particle change with time in an expanding Universe

The evolution of the momentum with time can be computed from the time component of the geodesic equation

$$\frac{dP^\mu}{d\lambda} = -\Gamma_{\alpha,\beta}^\mu P^\alpha P^\beta$$

Leading to $\frac{dp}{dt} = -H p$

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The meaning of this equation is to tell us that the physical momenta of particle Decays as $1/a$ in an expanding universe, indeed:

$$\frac{\dot{p}}{p} = -\frac{\dot{a}}{a}$$

$$d \ln(p)/dt = -d \ln(a)/dt$$

$$\ln(p) = -\ln(a) + C = \ln(a^{-1}) + C$$

$$p \propto 1/a$$

The Boltzmann equation followed by homogeneous dark matter is therefore

$$\frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial p} \frac{dp}{dt} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial t} - H p \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial p} = 0$$

We can integrate this over momentum in order to get an evolution equation for
The density of dark matter in the Universe

$$\frac{\partial \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f}{\partial t} - H \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} p \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial t} - H \int \frac{d^2 \hat{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \int dpp^3 \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} = 0$$

$$\frac{dn}{dt} + 3Hn = 0$$

Where the last equality follow from integration by part

This is a familiar result, the number density of matter decrease as the cube
Of the scale factor in an expanding Universe

$$\frac{d \ln n}{dt} = -3 \frac{d \ln a}{dt} \longrightarrow n \propto a^{-3}$$

Ok so this was for the background, but what about the dynamics of dark matter perturbations?, we need to go back to our original Boltzmann equation, now keeping All the terms (since perturbation unlike background can depends on (x, \hat{p}))

$$\frac{df(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{dt} = \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial x^i} \frac{dx^i}{dt} + \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial p} \frac{dp}{dt} + \frac{\partial f(x^\mu, p^\mu)}{\partial \hat{p}_i} \frac{d\hat{p}_i}{dt} = 0$$

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To compute the rest of the total derivatives we need the perturbed FLRW metric,

$$ds^2 = -(1 + 2\psi(\mathbf{x}, t))dt^2 + a^2(t)\delta_{ij}[1 + 2\phi(\mathbf{x}, t)]dx^i dx^j$$

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After some work we get

$$\frac{dx^i}{dt} = \frac{p}{aE}(1 - \phi + \psi)\hat{p}^i$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -[H + \dot{\phi}]p - \frac{E}{a}\hat{p}^i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^i}$$

$$ds^2 = -(1 + 2\psi(\mathbf{x}, t))dt^2 + a^2(t)\delta_{ij}[1 + 2\phi(\mathbf{x}, t)]dx^i dx^j$$

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Compare this with the equation
for the background

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -Hp$$

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This term tell us that particule gain momentum when they fall in a gravitational potential well ψ

Ok nearly done, the Boltzmann equation for dark matter perturbations become

$$\frac{\partial f_c}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial x^i} \frac{dx^i}{dt} + \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} \frac{dp}{dt} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f_c}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial x^i} \frac{p}{aE} (1 - \phi + \psi) \hat{p}^i - \left[(H + \dot{\phi})p + \frac{E}{a} \hat{p}^i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^i} \right] \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} = 0$$

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We can simplify one step further by noticing that $\frac{\partial f_c}{\partial x^i}$ is of order 1 in perturbation, since the homogeneous distribution function do not depend on positions. We finally arrive at the collisionless Boltzmann equation that describe the evolution of dark matter perturbation

$$\frac{\partial f_c}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial x^i} \frac{p}{aE} \hat{p}^i - \left[(H + \dot{\phi})p + \frac{E}{a} \hat{p}^i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^i} \right] \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} = 0$$

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Note that here we don't know anything about f_c ,

since we don't know anything about dark matter, apart from the fact that it's something non-interacting. Yet it doesn't matter, we can integrate the equation over momenta to turn it into an equation for dark matter perturbation, the result of the integration is called the « 0th order moment of Boltzmann equation »

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f_c + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f_c \frac{p}{E(p)} \hat{p}^i & - (H + \dot{\phi}) \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} p \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} \\
& - \boxed{\frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^i} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} E(p) \hat{p}^i} = 0
\end{aligned}$$



This term is second order, because only the anisotropic of f contribute to the integral, so the integral is first order,

the multiplication by $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^i}$ make it second order

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f_c + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f_c \frac{p}{E(p)} \hat{p}^i & - (H + \dot{\phi}) \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} p \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} \\ & - \boxed{\frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^i} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} E(p) \hat{p}^i} = 0 \end{aligned}$$



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$$\frac{\partial n_c}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f_c \frac{p}{E(p)} \hat{p}^i + 3(H + \dot{\phi}) n_c = 0$$

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The second term under the integral is nothing but the definition of the fluid velocities

$$u_c^i = \frac{1}{n_c} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f_c \frac{p}{E(p)} \hat{p}^i$$

$$v^i = \frac{1}{n} \left\langle \frac{p^i}{m} \right\rangle \simeq \frac{1}{n} \left\langle \frac{p \hat{p}^i}{E} \right\rangle$$

Ok let's stop here for a minute, we have derived an equation for the evolution of the dark matter density in a FLRW universe, including the effect of perturbation

$$\frac{\partial n_c}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} (n_c u_c^i) + 3(H + \dot{\phi}) n_c = 0$$

The equation should look familiar it is the generalization of the standard continuity equation in fluid dynamic

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u}) = 0$$

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We can decompose the equation into two equations, one for the background one
For the perturbation using $n_c(\mathbf{x}, t) = \bar{n}_c(t)[1 + \delta_c(\mathbf{x}, t)]$

$$\frac{d\bar{n}_c}{dt} + 3H\bar{n}_c = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \delta_c}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial u_c^i}{\partial x^i} + 3\dot{\phi} = 0$$

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We have an equation for $\delta_c(\mathbf{x}, t)$ but it depends on $\mathbf{u}_c(\mathbf{x}, t)$ for solving the evolution of dark matter we therefore need a additional equation for $\mathbf{u}_c(\mathbf{x}, t)$

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Note that this is a generic feature of Boltzmann equation, while integrating the distribution over all the momenta, we have taken the 0th moment of the Boltzmann equation, which depends on the velocity. The equation for the velocity can be obtained by taking the second first moment of the Boltzmann equation which is integrating over $\frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} p \frac{\hat{p}^j}{E}$

In principle the equation we will derive will depends on the second moment, and so on, there is an infinite hierarchy of Boltzmann equation, in practice however we close the hierarchy using the fact that the higher moment become negligible, In the case of the DM, the key assumption is that p/E is small, that is the

velocity of dark matter particule is small: the dark matter is cold.

Going back to our Boltzmann equation

$$\frac{\partial f_c}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial x^i} \frac{p}{aE} \hat{p}^i - \left[(H + \dot{\phi})p + \frac{E}{a} \hat{p}^i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^i} \right] \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} = 0$$

And taking its first moment

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} p \frac{\hat{p}^j}{E} f_c &+ \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f_c \frac{p^2}{E(p)^2} \hat{p}^i \hat{p}^j - (H + \dot{\phi}) \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} p^2 \frac{\hat{p}^j}{E} \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} \\ &- \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^i} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} p \hat{p}^j \hat{p}^i \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

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Second order in p/E

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} p \frac{\hat{p}^j}{E} f_c &+ \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} f_c \frac{p^2}{E(p)^2} \hat{p}^i \hat{p}^j - (H + \dot{\phi}) \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} p^2 \frac{\hat{p}^j}{E} \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} \\ &- \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^i} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} p \hat{p}^j \hat{p}^i \frac{\partial f_c}{\partial p} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

And the two other terms can be integrated by part, finally we get

$$\frac{\partial(n_c u_c^j)}{\partial t} + 4H n_c u_c^j + \frac{n_c}{a} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^j} = 0$$

Which we can simplify using the equation on n_c

$$\frac{\partial n_c}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} (n_c u_c^i) + 3(H + \dot{\phi}) n_c = 0$$

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Finally

$$\frac{\partial u_c^j}{\partial t} + H u_c^j + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^j} = 0$$

Again this look like
a standard fluid equation

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} + \frac{\nabla p}{\rho} = \mathbf{g}$$

So we finally have our equations for the evolution of the dark matter, both at the background and at the perturbation level

$$\frac{d\bar{n}_c}{dt} + 3H\bar{n}_c = 0$$

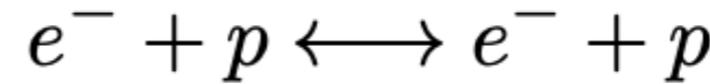
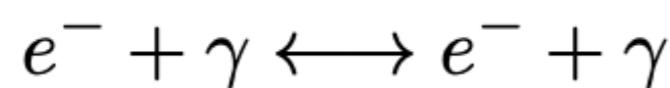
$$\frac{\partial \delta_c}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial u_c^i}{\partial x^i} + 3\dot{\phi} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u_c^j}{\partial t} + Hu_c^j + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^j} = 0$$

What makes the dark matter special is the fact that it's non interacting, if we were to redo the computation for the baryons, we would have to include interactions

$$\frac{\partial f_b}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f_b}{\partial x^i} \frac{p}{aE} \hat{p}^i - \left[(H + \dot{\phi})p + \frac{E}{a} \hat{p}^i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^i} \right] \frac{\partial f_b}{\partial p} = C[f_b, f_\gamma]$$

Baryons interact through Compton scattering and Coulomb scattering



Note that none of these interactions create or destroy particles, we therefore expect that the equations describing the densities are unaffected, it is indeed the case

$$\frac{d\bar{n}_b}{dt} + 3H\bar{n}_c = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \delta_b}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial u_b^i}{\partial x^i} + 3\dot{\phi} = 0$$

However, baryons are going to exchange momenta with photons, so the Baryons velocity equation is modified

$$\frac{\partial u_b^j}{\partial t} + Hu_b^j + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x^j} = \boxed{\frac{4\rho_\gamma}{3\rho_b} n_e \sigma_T (u_\gamma^j - u_b^j)}$$

The baryons feel the radiation pressure of the photons

ok, back to the full system of equations

$$\Theta' + ik\mu \Theta = -\phi' - ik\mu\psi - \tau' \left[\Theta_0 - \Theta + \mu u_b - \frac{1}{2} P_2 \mu \Pi \right]$$

$$\delta'_c + iku_c = -3\phi'$$

$$u'_c + \frac{a'}{a} u_c = -ik \psi$$

$$\delta'_b + iku_b = -3\phi'$$

$$u'_b + \frac{a'}{a} u_b = -ik \psi + \frac{\tau'}{R} [u_b + 3i\Theta_1]$$

$$k^2 \phi + 3 \frac{a'}{a} \left(\phi' - \psi \frac{a'}{a} \right) = 4\pi G a^2 [\rho_c \delta_c + \rho_b \delta_b + \rho_\gamma \delta_\gamma + \rho_\nu \delta_\nu]$$

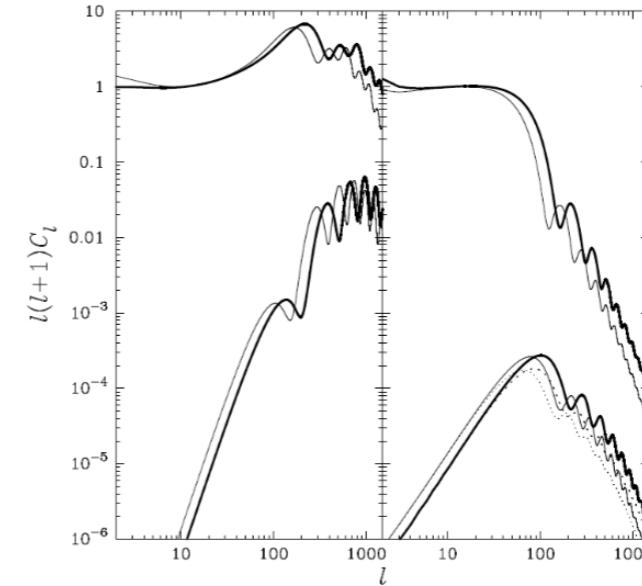
$$k^2(\phi + \psi) = -32\pi G a^2 \rho_r \Theta_{r,2} \sim 0$$

In order to predict the CMB anisotropies we observe today

$$\Theta \Big|_{\eta_R} = \int_0^{\eta_R} d\eta g(\eta) [(\Theta_0 + \psi) + e u_b] + 2 \int_0^{\eta_R} d\eta \exp(-\tau) \dot{\psi}$$

we need to solve all of these equations jointly

The standard in the community is to use public codes such as CAMB (fortran + python wrapper) or CLASS (C + python wrapper)



Code for Anisotropies in the Microwave Background

by [Antony Lewis](#) and [Anthony Challinor](#)

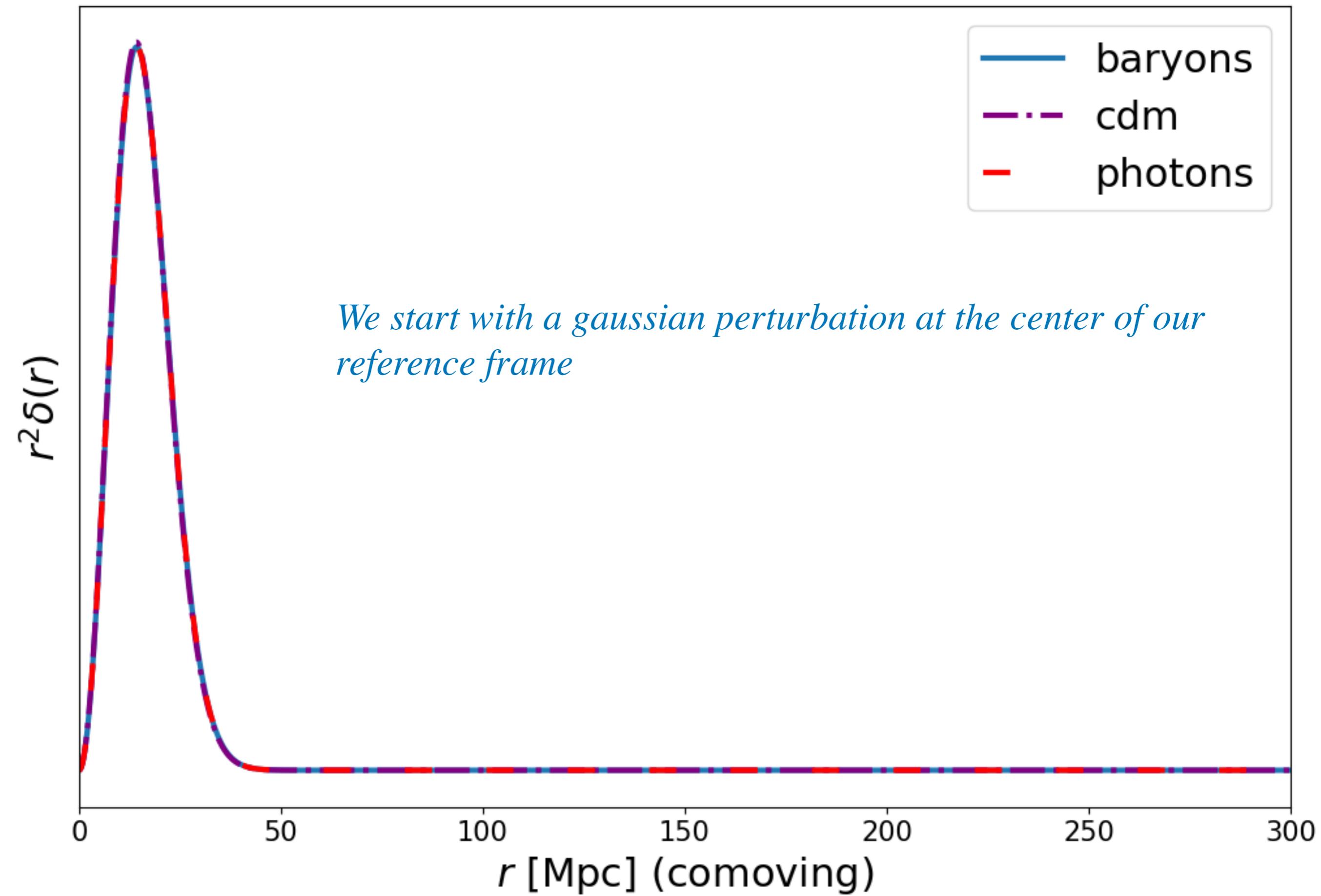
Get help:

Features:

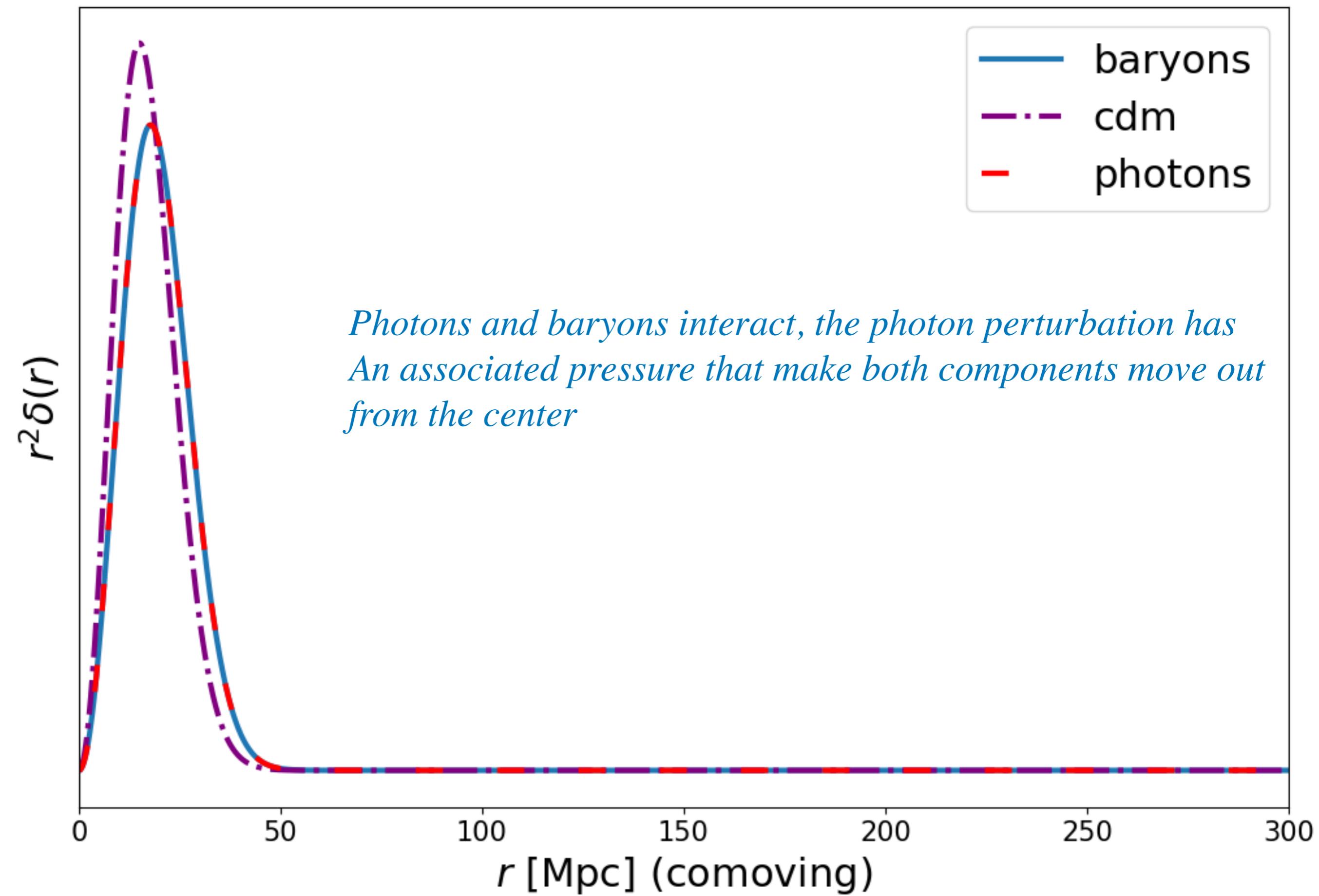
- Optimized Python and Fortran code
- Calculate CMB, lensing, source count and dark-age 21cm angular power spectra
- Matter transfer functions, power spectra, σ_8 and related quantities
- General background cosmology
- Support for closed, open and flat models
- Scalar, vector and tensor modes including polarization
- Fast computation to $\sim 0.1\%$ accuracy, with controllable accuracy level
- Object-oriented Python and easily-extensible modern Fortran 2008 classes
- Efficient support for massive neutrinos and arbitrary neutrino mass splittings
- Optional modelling of perturbed recombination and temperature perturbations
- Calculation of local primordial and CMB lensing bispectra (Fortran)

Let's solve the equations in a very simple case, let's assume that the Universe is composed of a very homogeneous background, with, as initial conditions, a single perturbation in the middle, let's assume that the perturbation contains baryons, dark matter, and photons and let's look how it will evolve according to our Boltzmann and Einstein equations

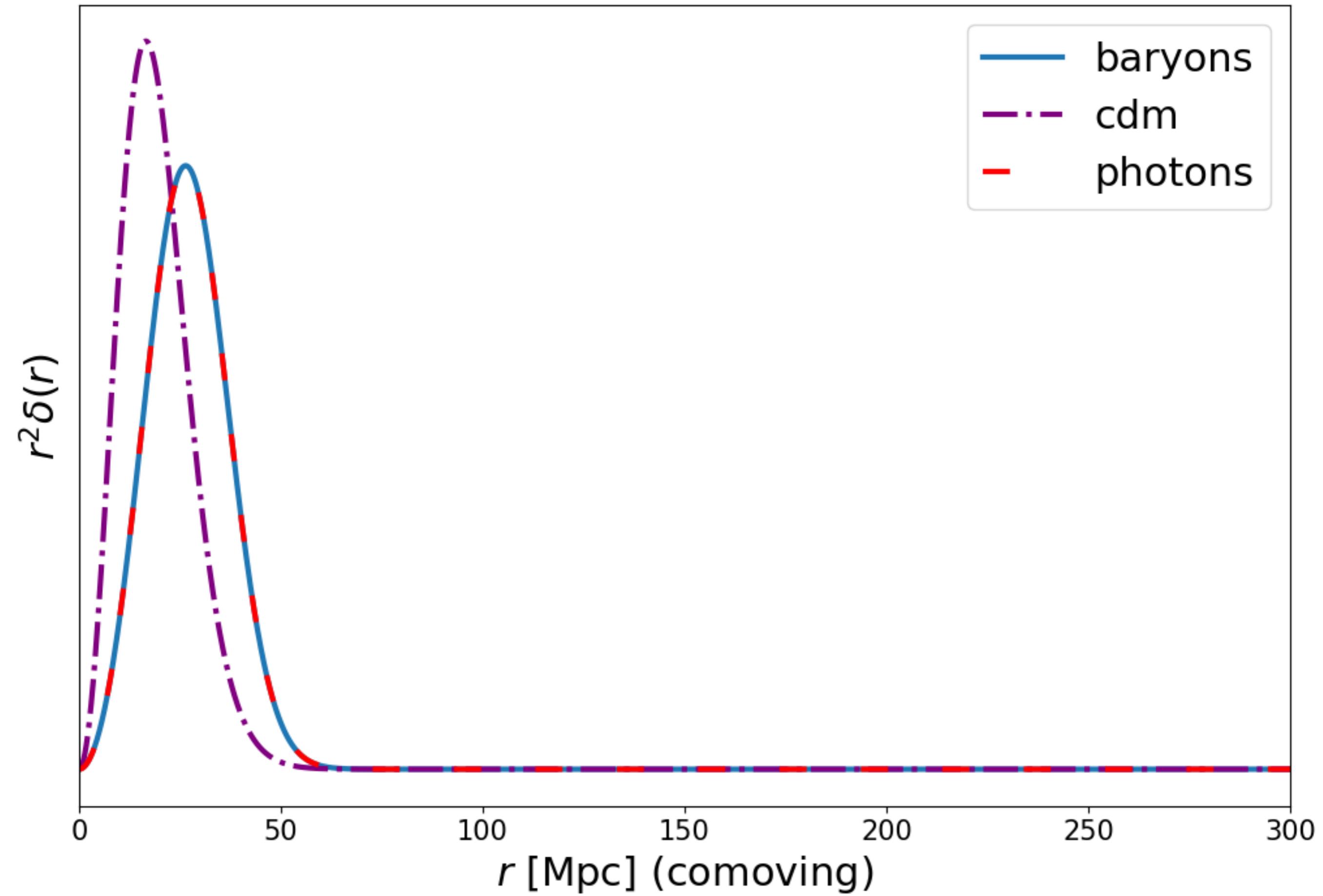
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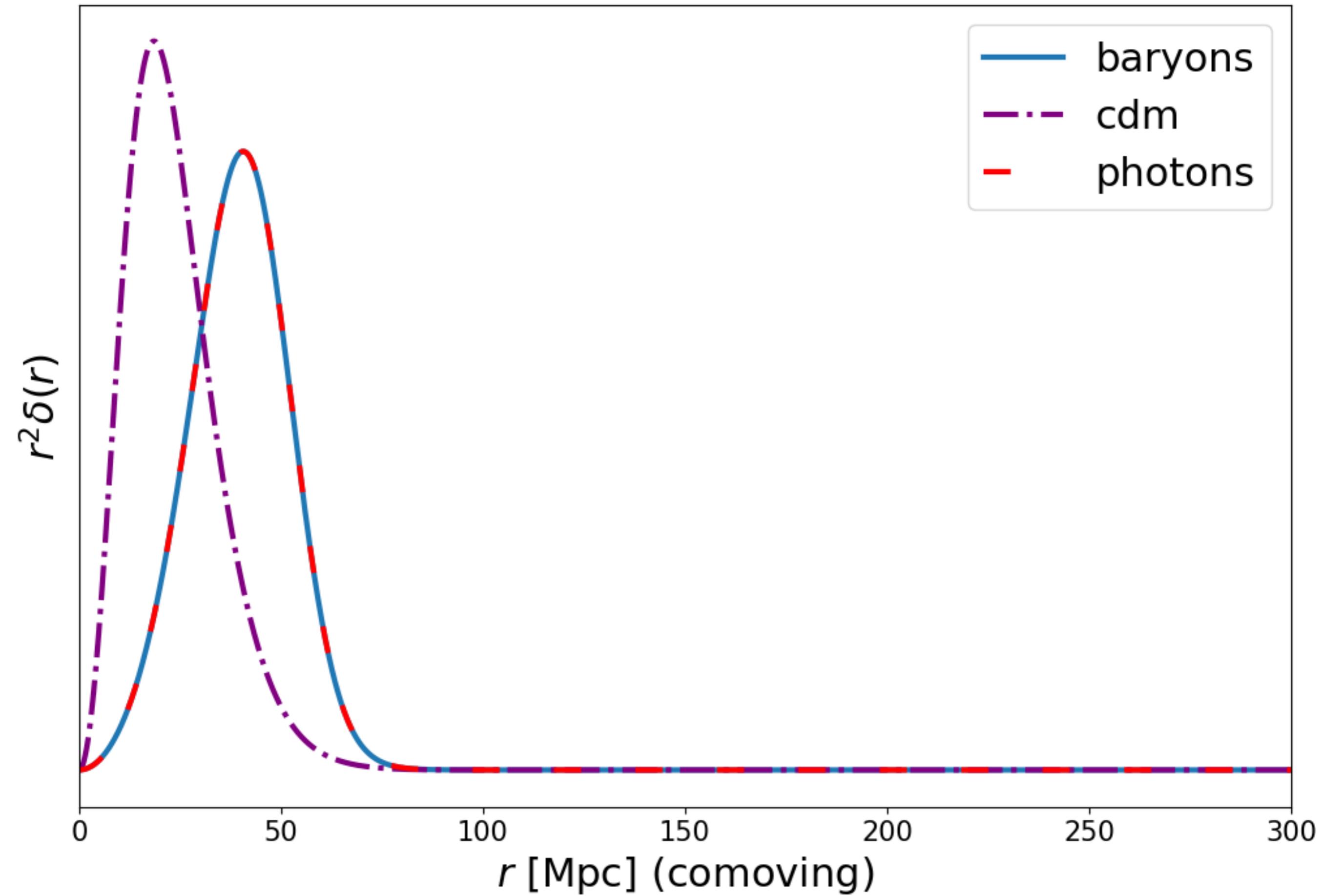
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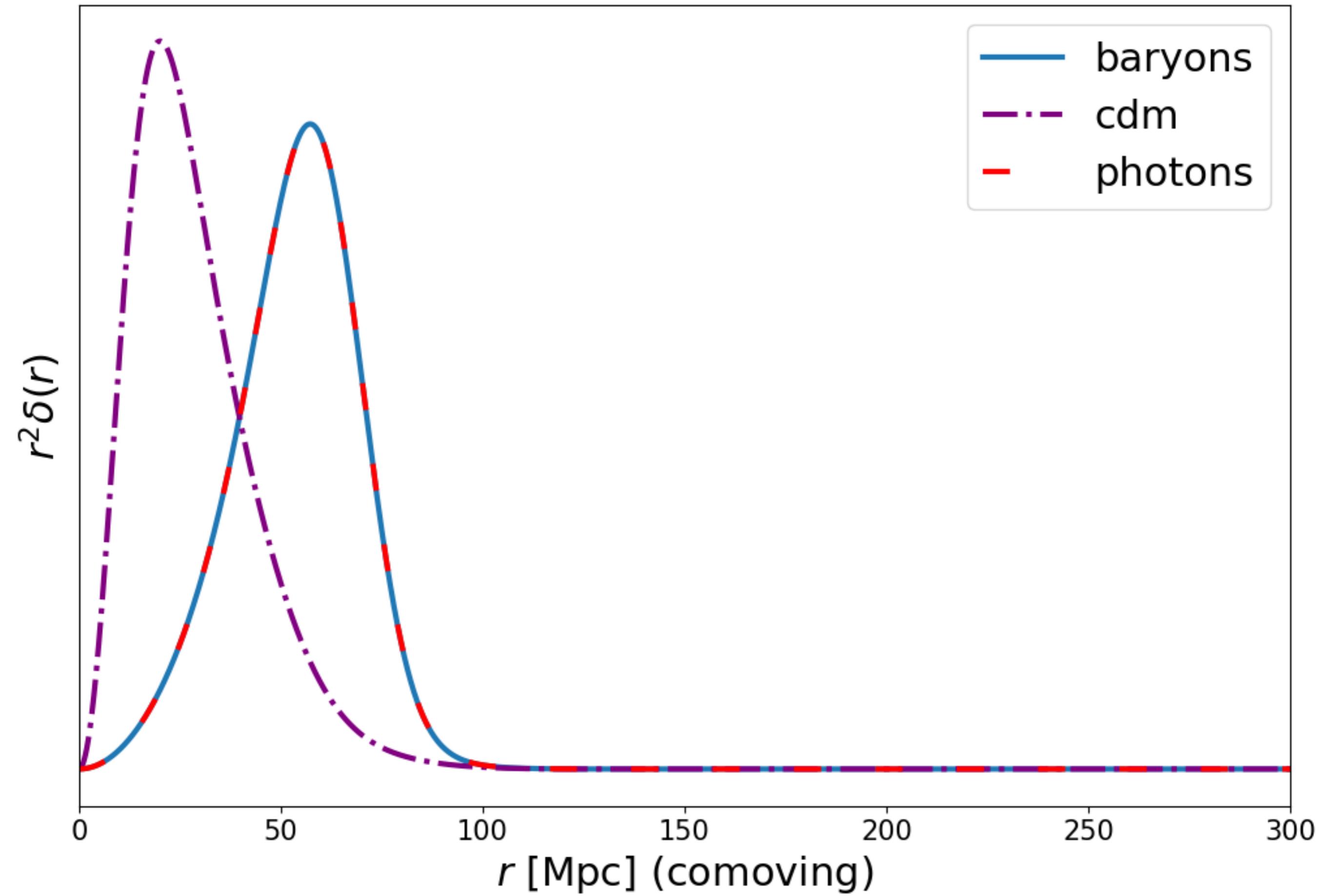
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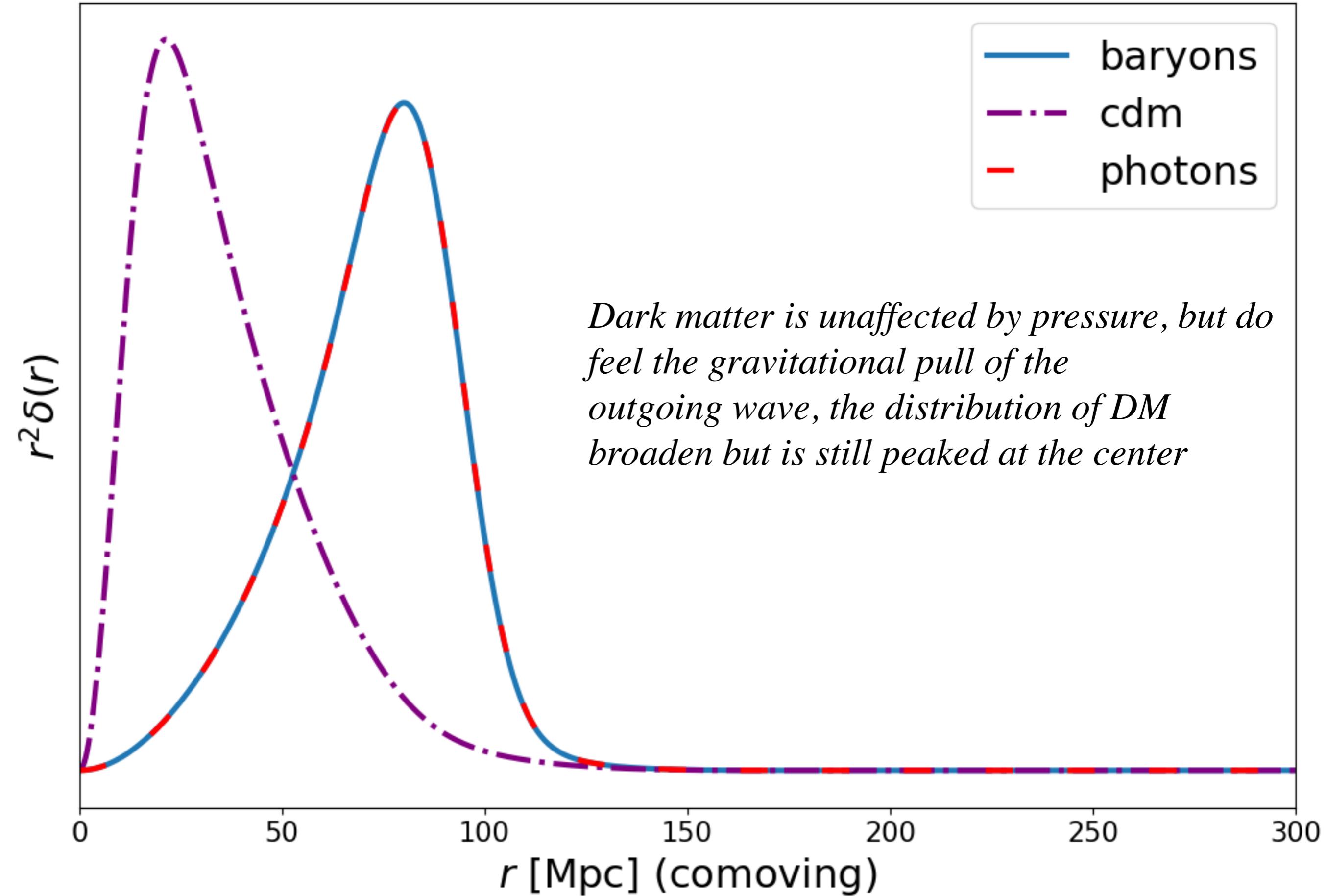
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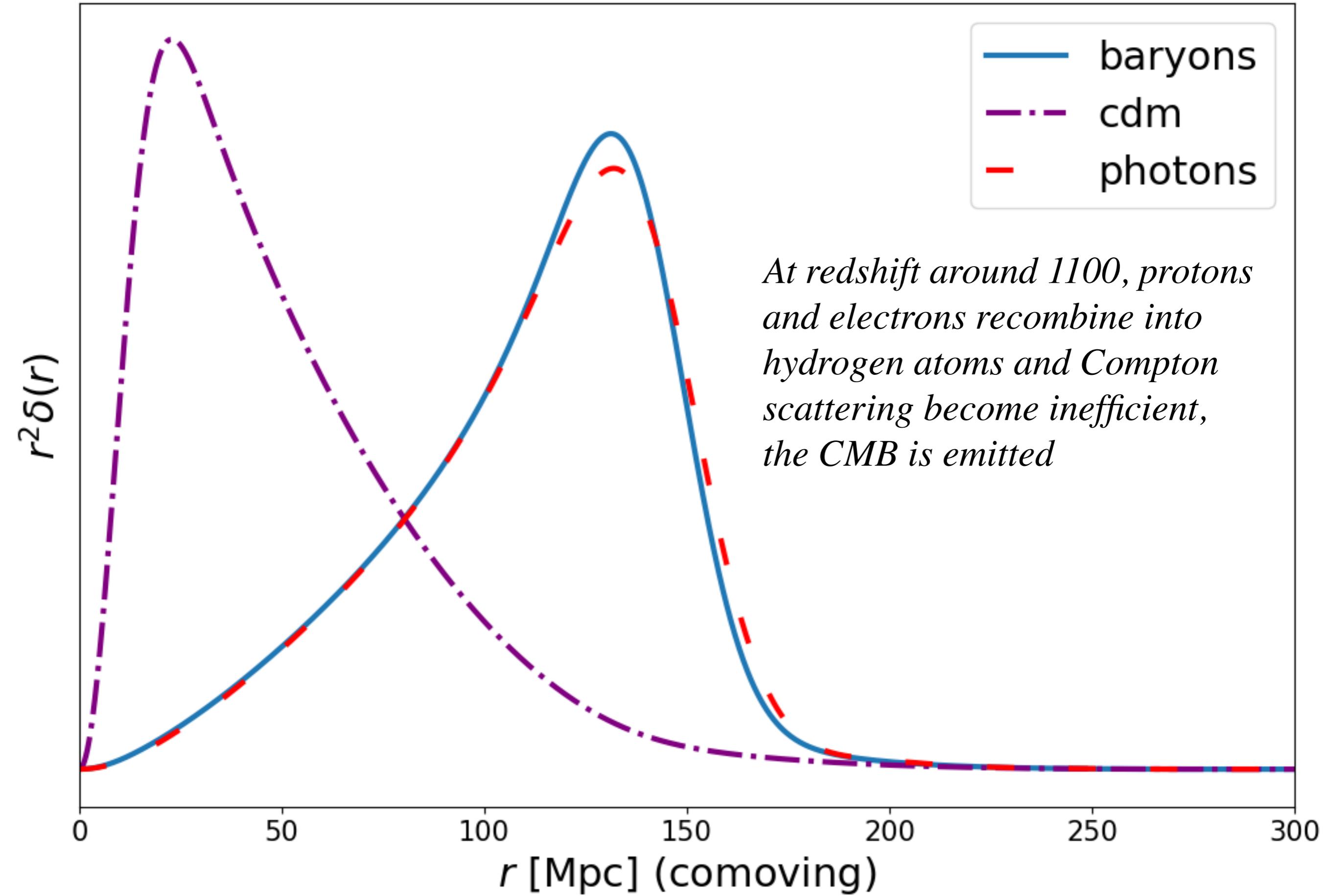
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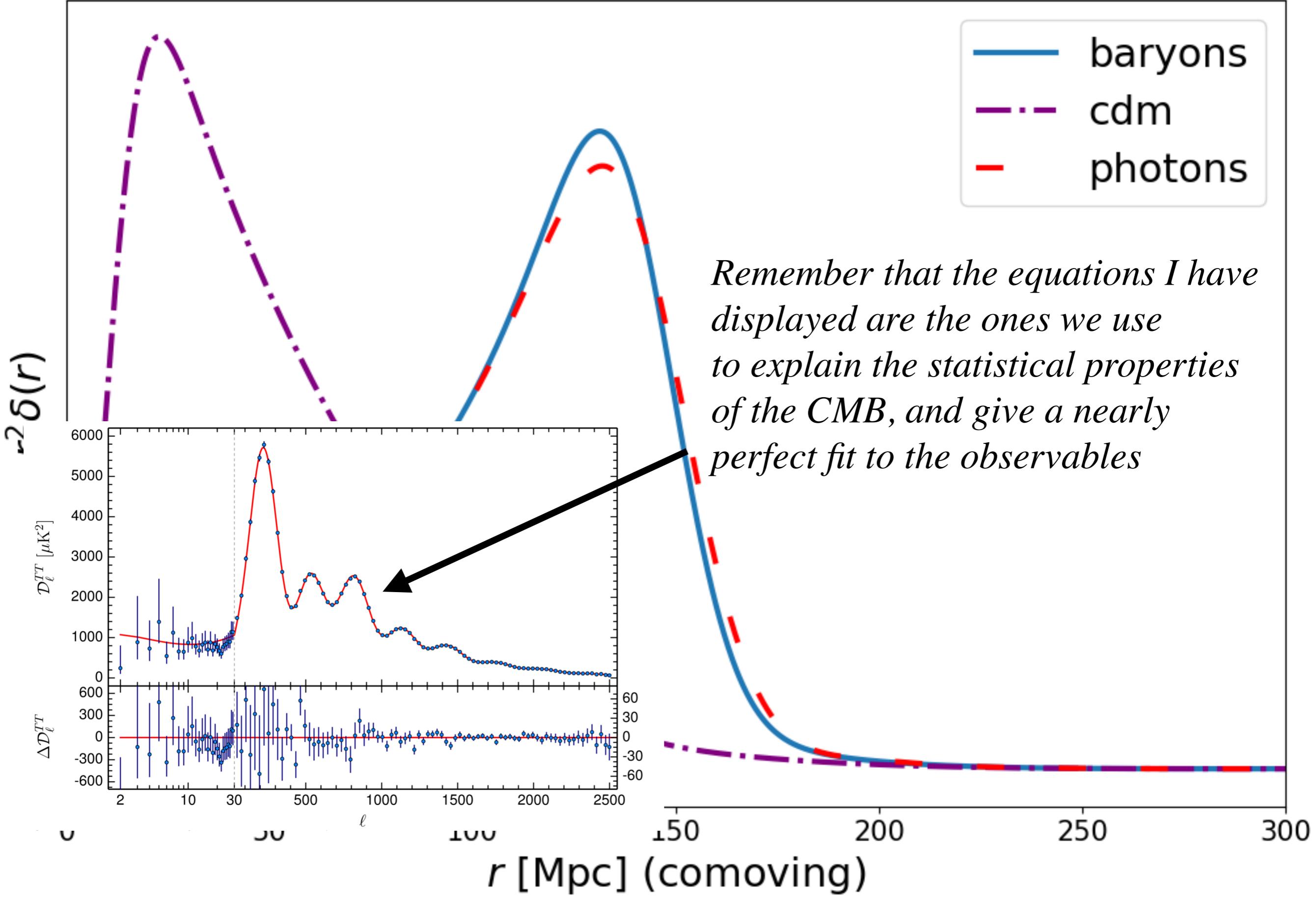
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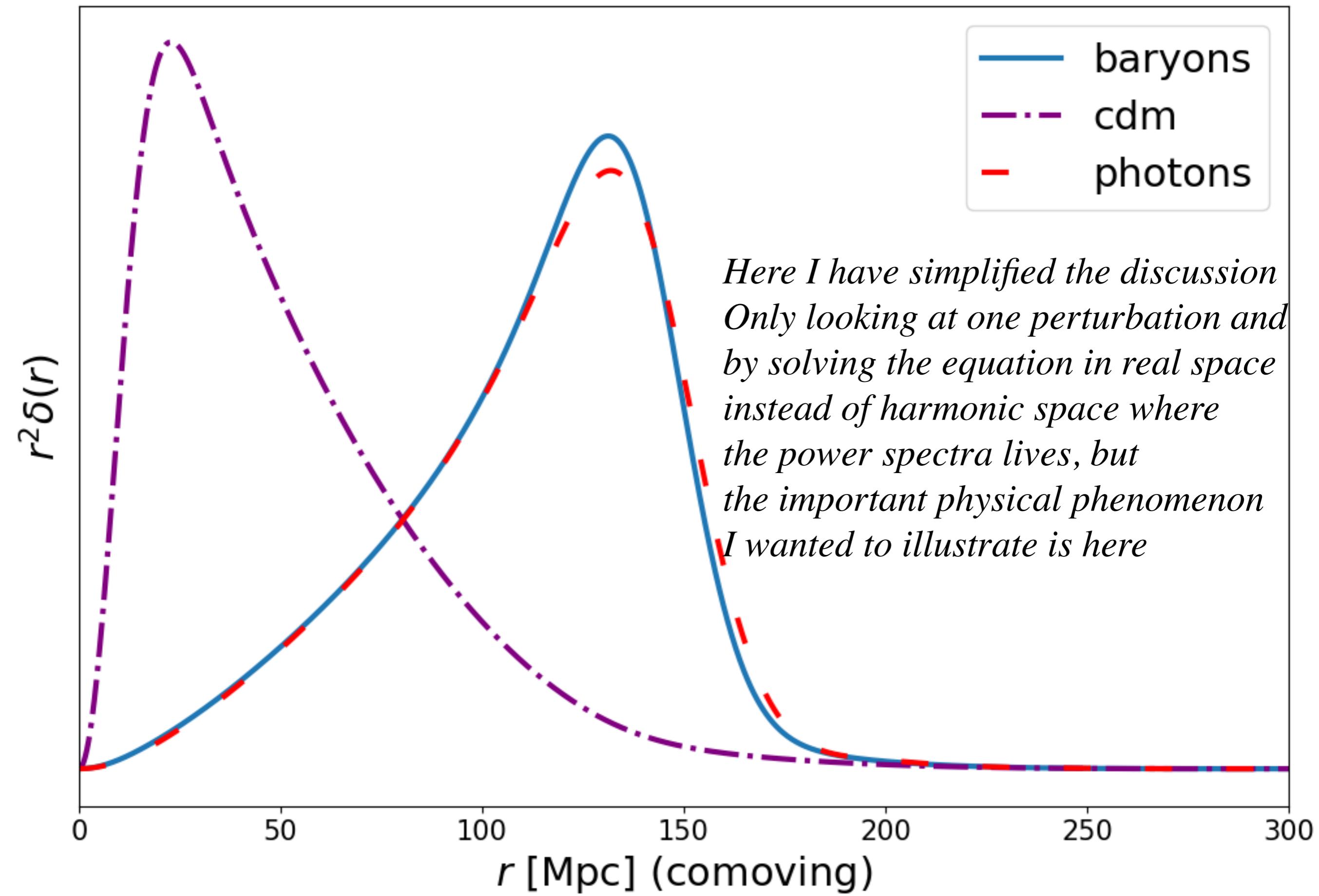
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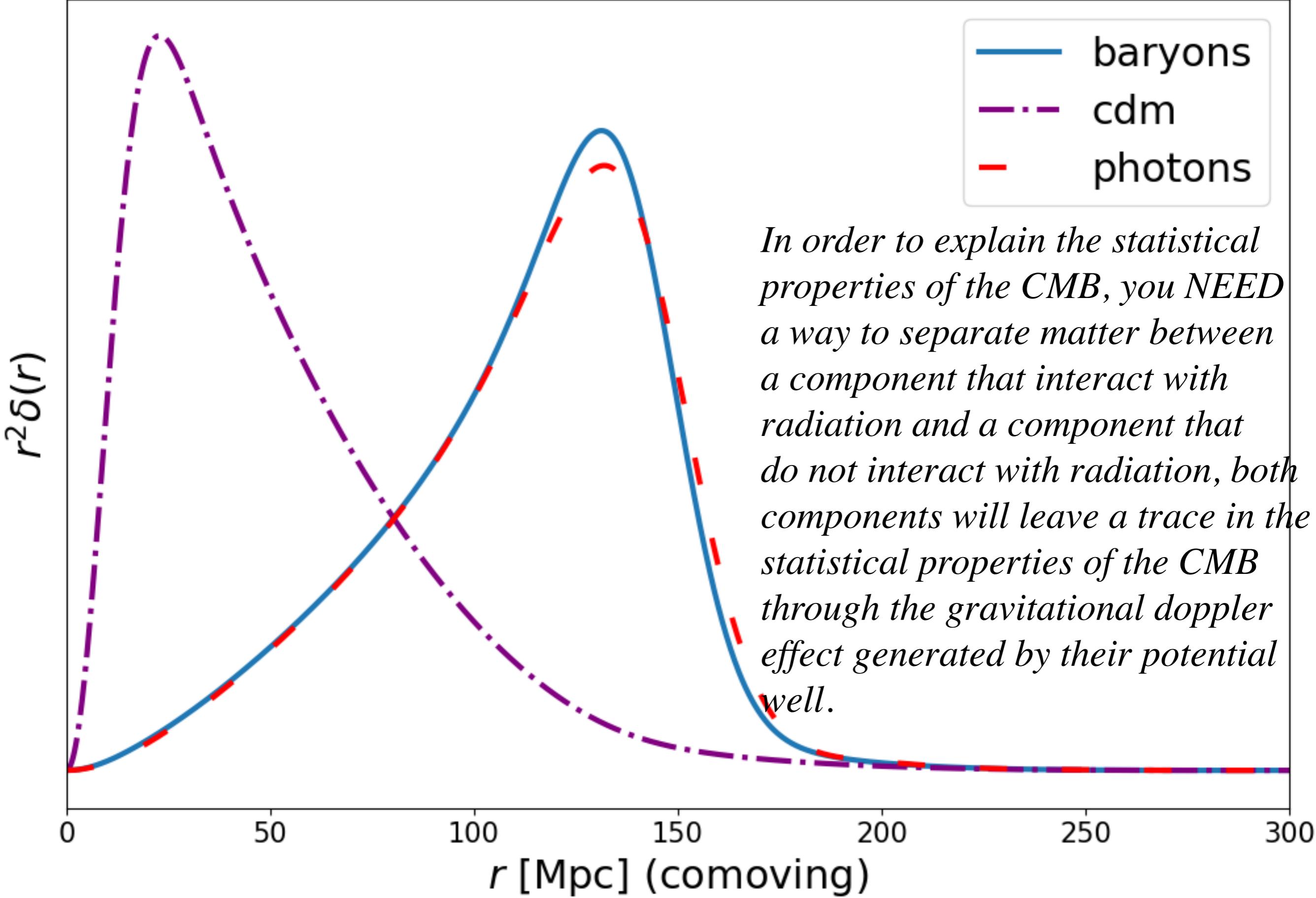
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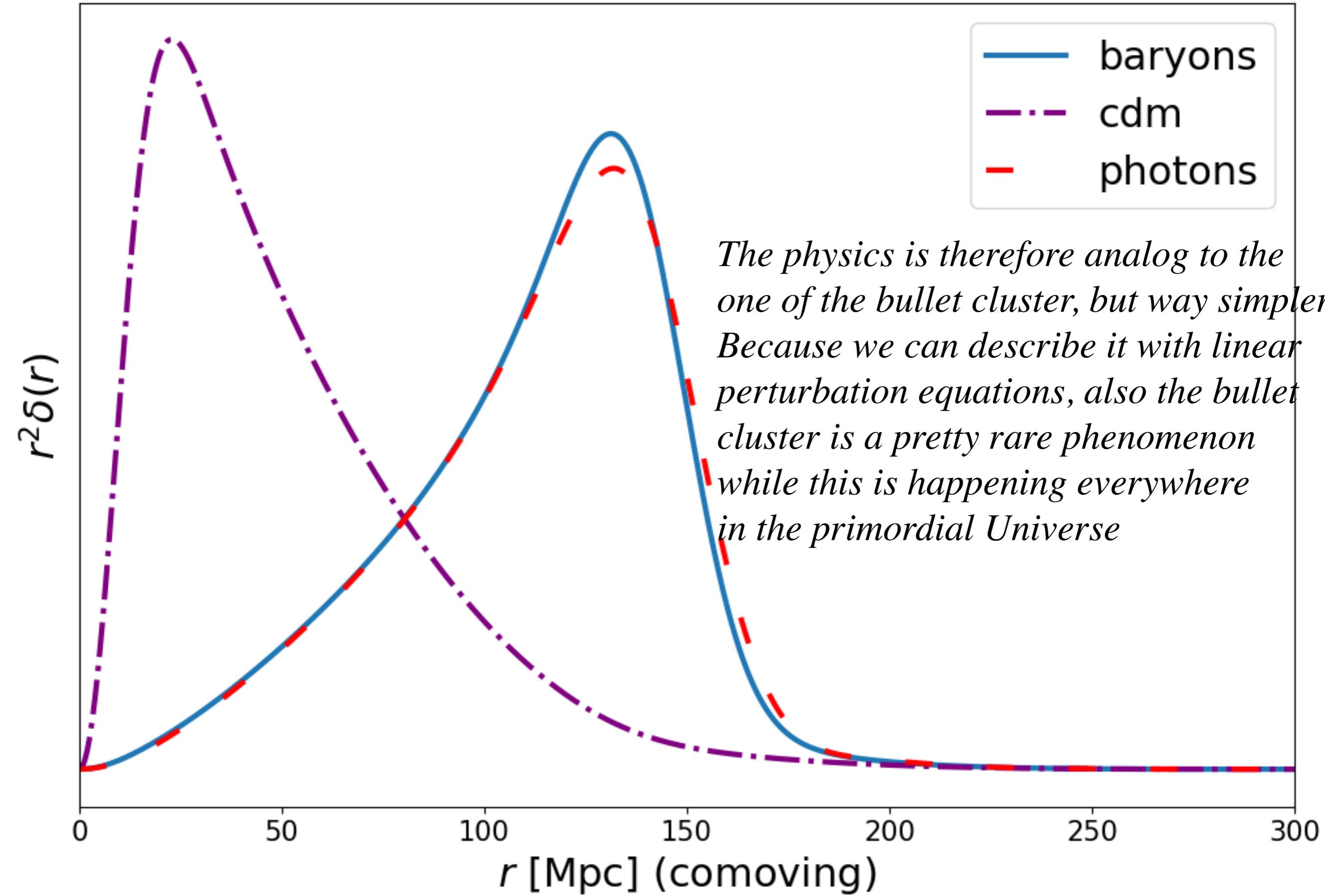
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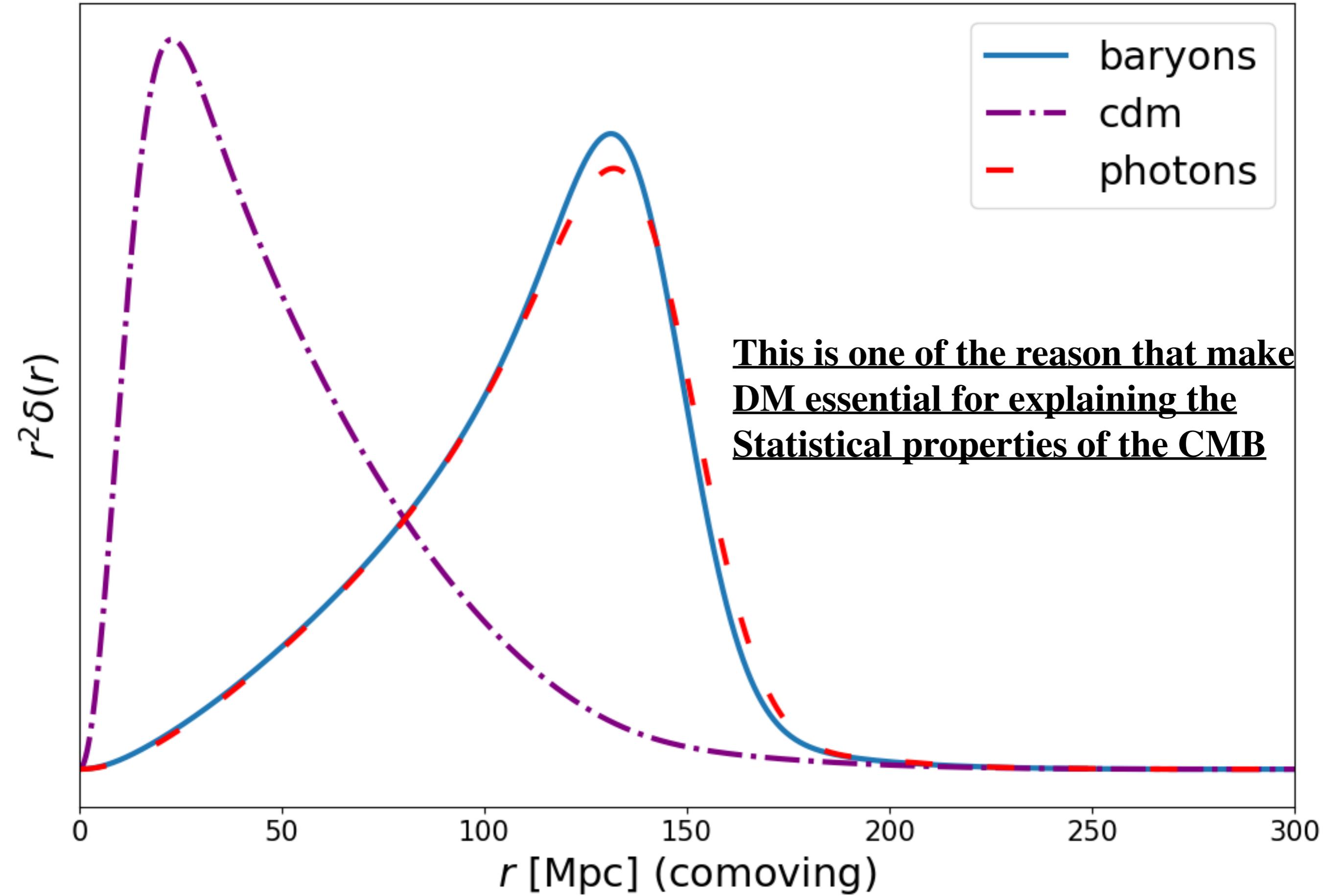
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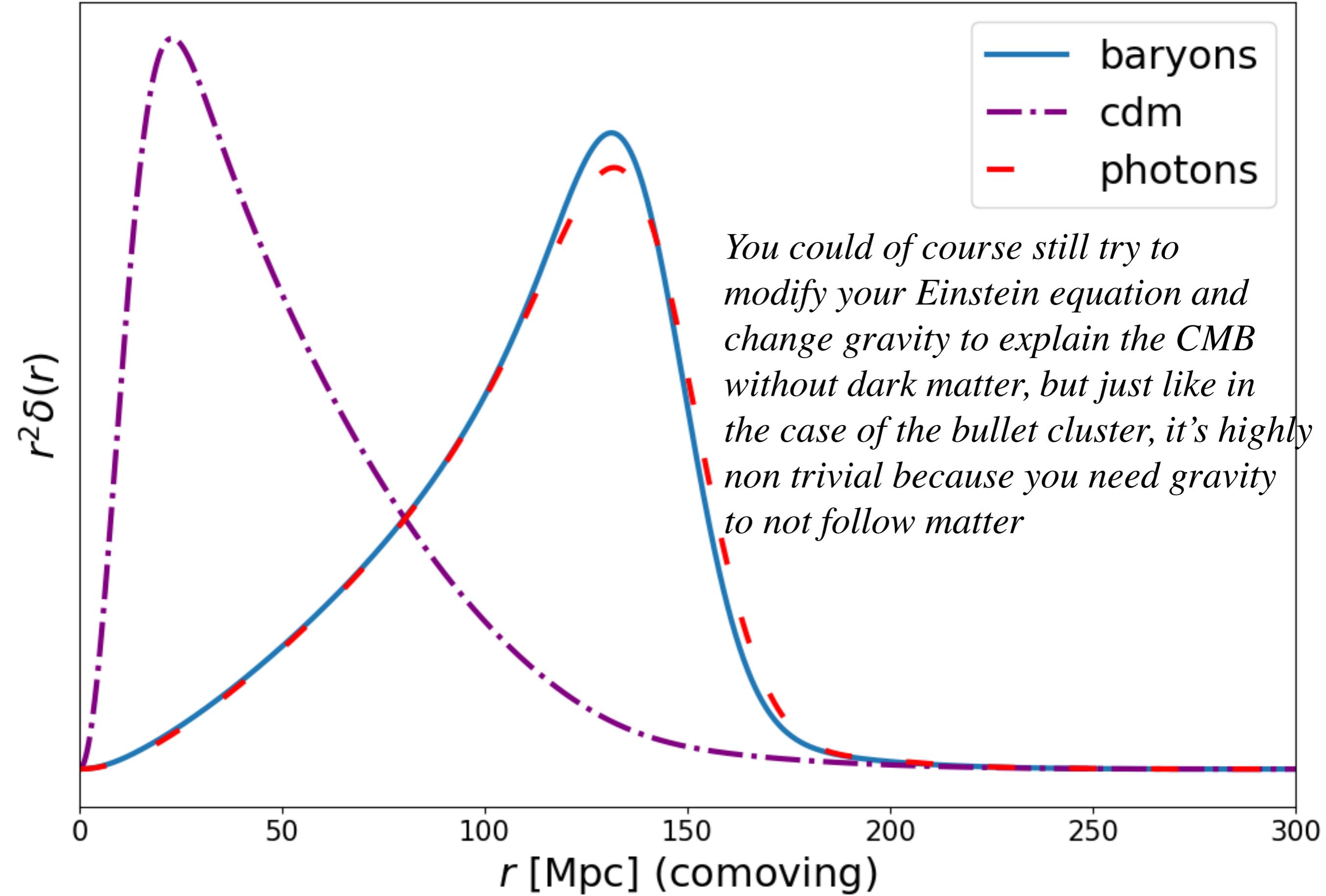
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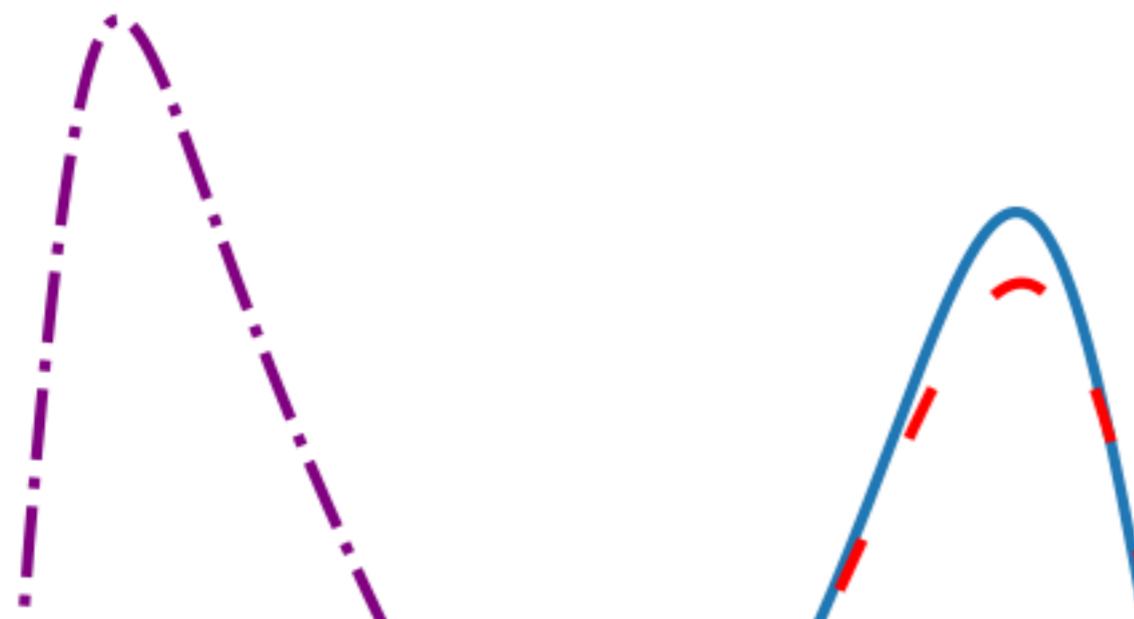


redshift: 1071



redshift: 1071





— baryons
 -·- cdm
 - - photons

*You could of course still try to
 modify your Einstein equation and
 change gravity to explain the CMB*

*but just like in
 cluster, it's highly
 you need gravity
 standard baryonic*

$$\Theta' + ik\mu \Theta = -\phi' - ik\mu\psi - \tau' \left[\Theta_0 - \Theta + \mu u_b - \frac{1}{2} P_2 \mu \Pi \right]$$

~~$$\delta'_c + iku_c = -3\phi'$$~~

~~$$u'_c + \frac{a'}{a} u_c = -ik \psi$$~~

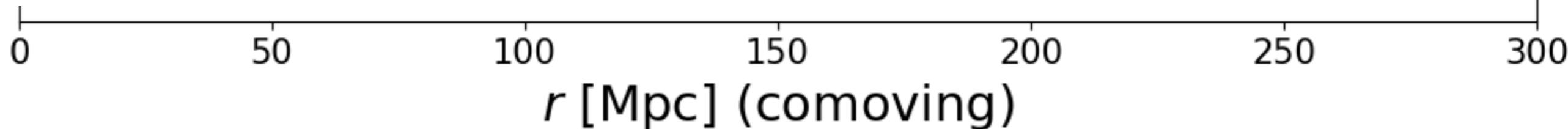
~~$$\delta'_b + iku_b = -3\phi'$$~~

$$u'_b + \frac{a'}{a} u_b = -ik \psi + \frac{\tau'}{R} [u_b + 3i\Theta_1]$$

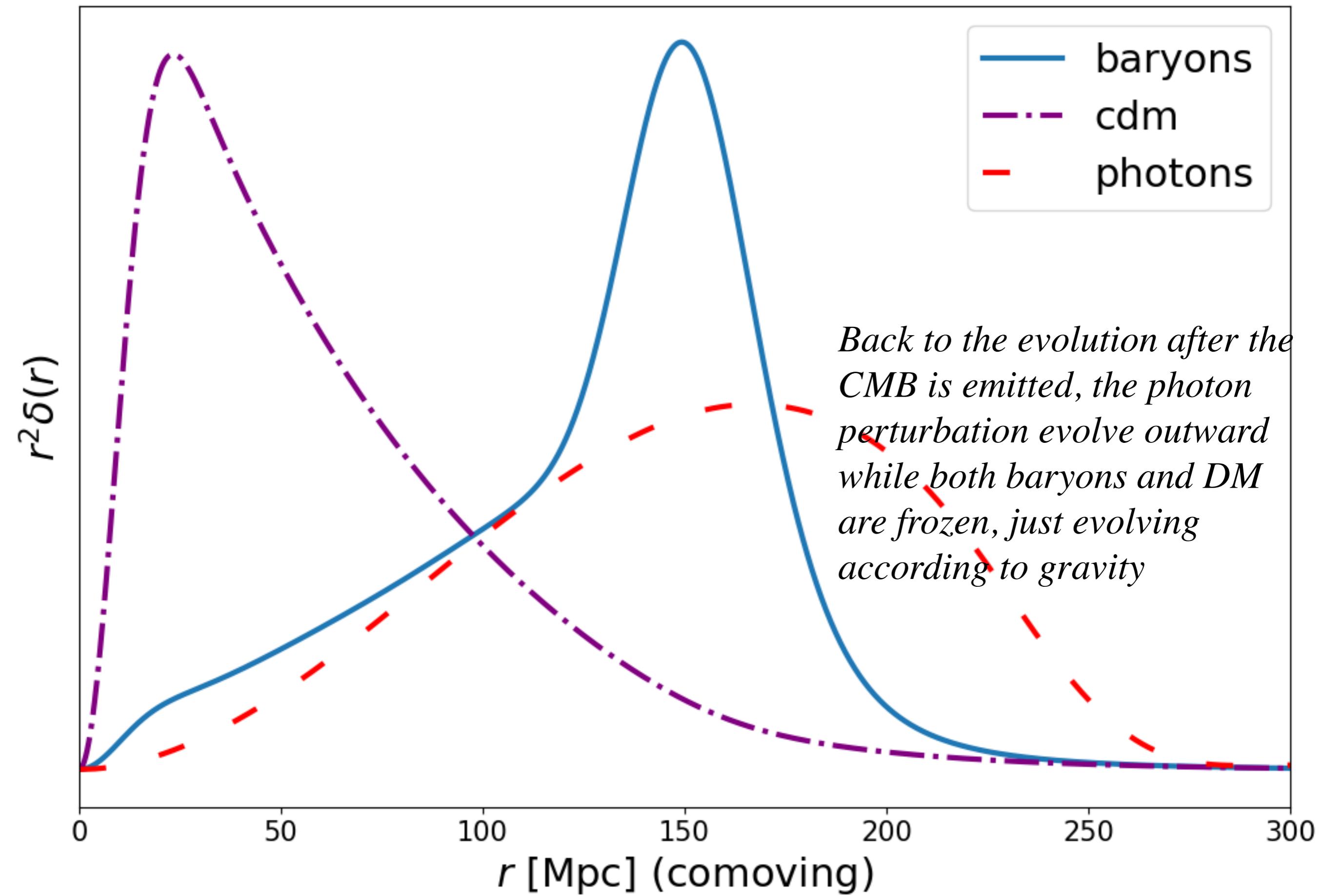
$$k^2 \phi + 3 \frac{a'}{a} \left(\phi' - \psi \frac{a'}{a} \right) = 4\pi G a^2 [\rho_c \delta_c + \rho_b \delta_b + \rho_\gamma \delta_\gamma + \rho_\nu \delta_\nu]$$

$$k^2(\phi + \psi) = -32\pi G a^2 \rho_r \Theta_{r,2} \sim 0$$

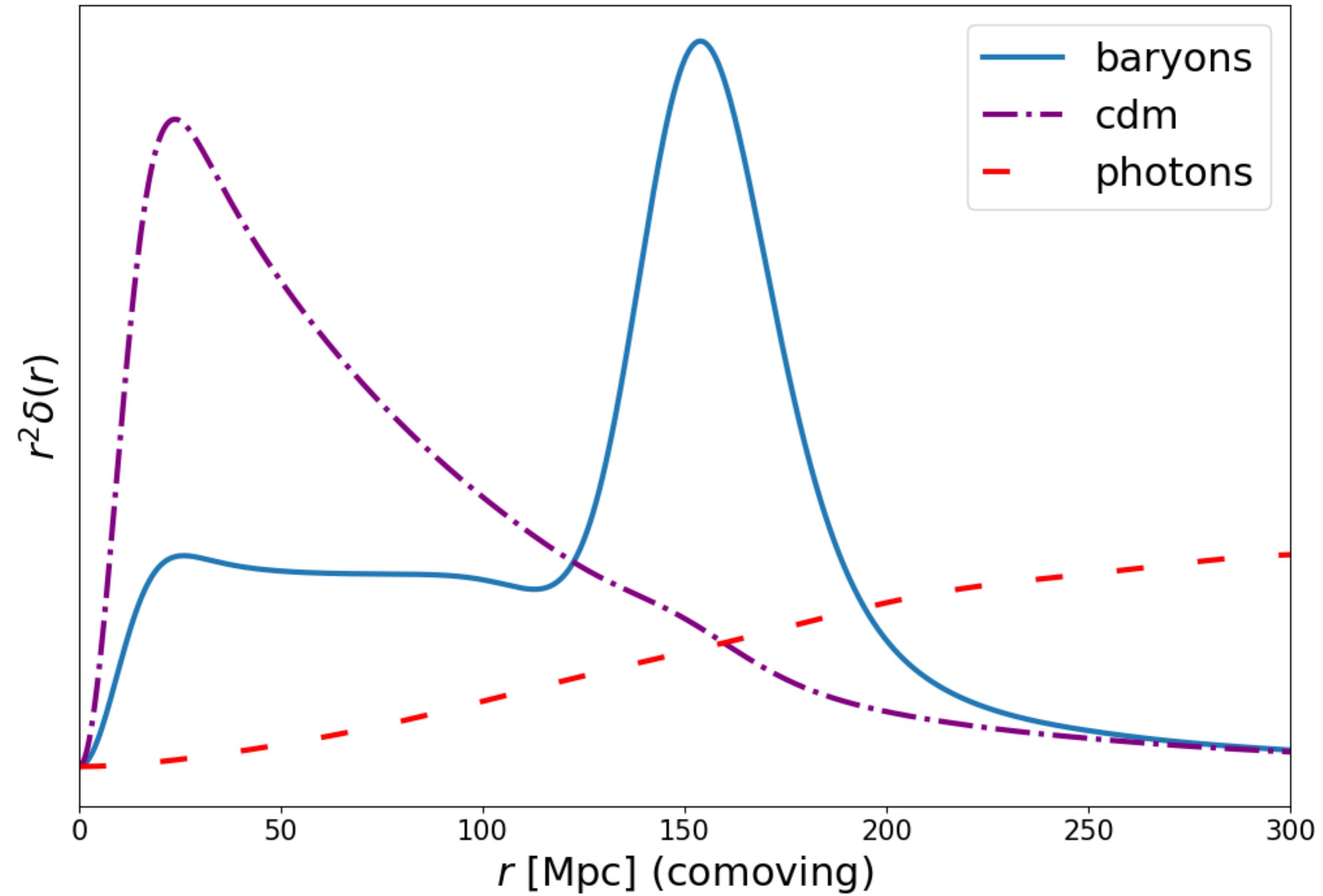
?



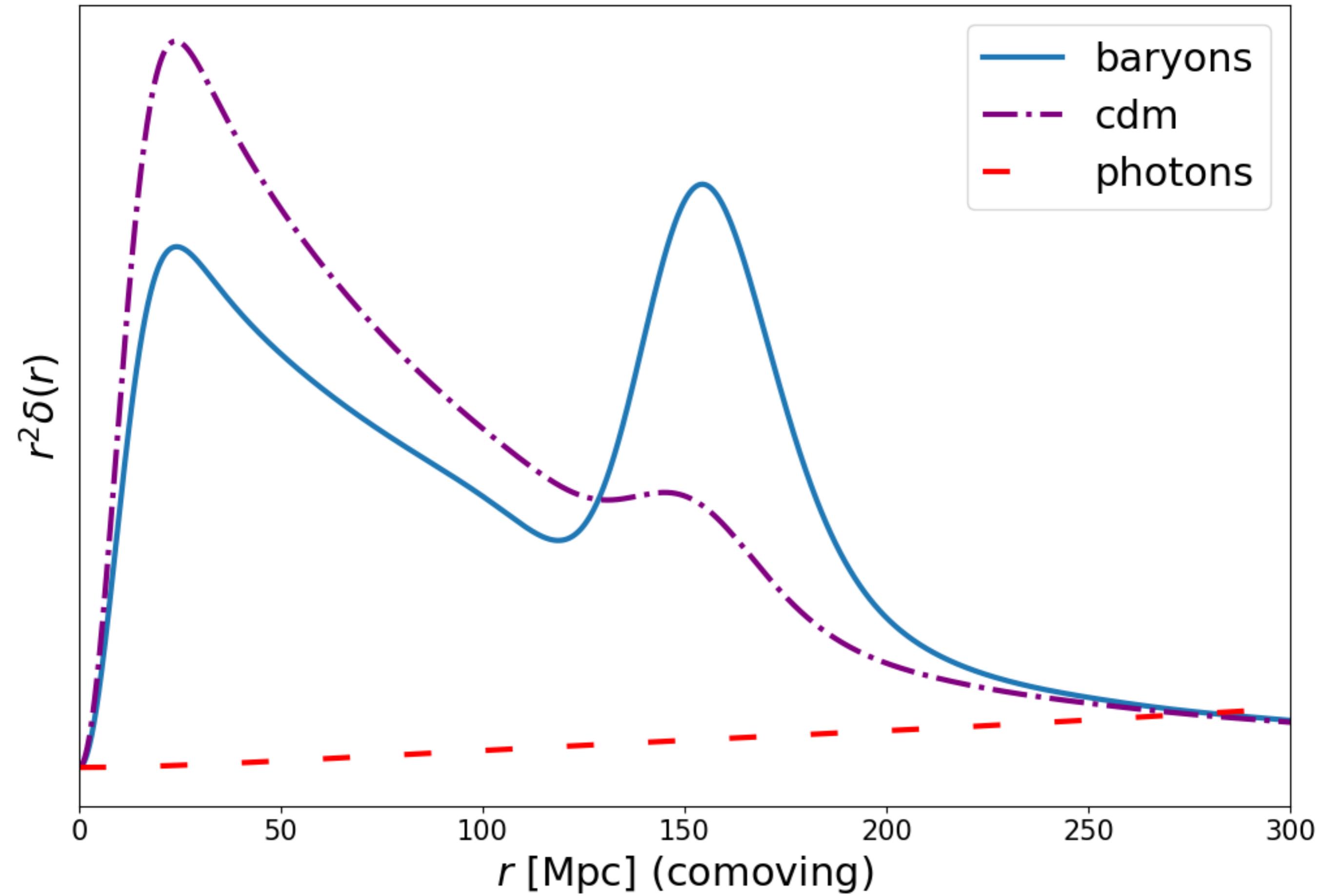
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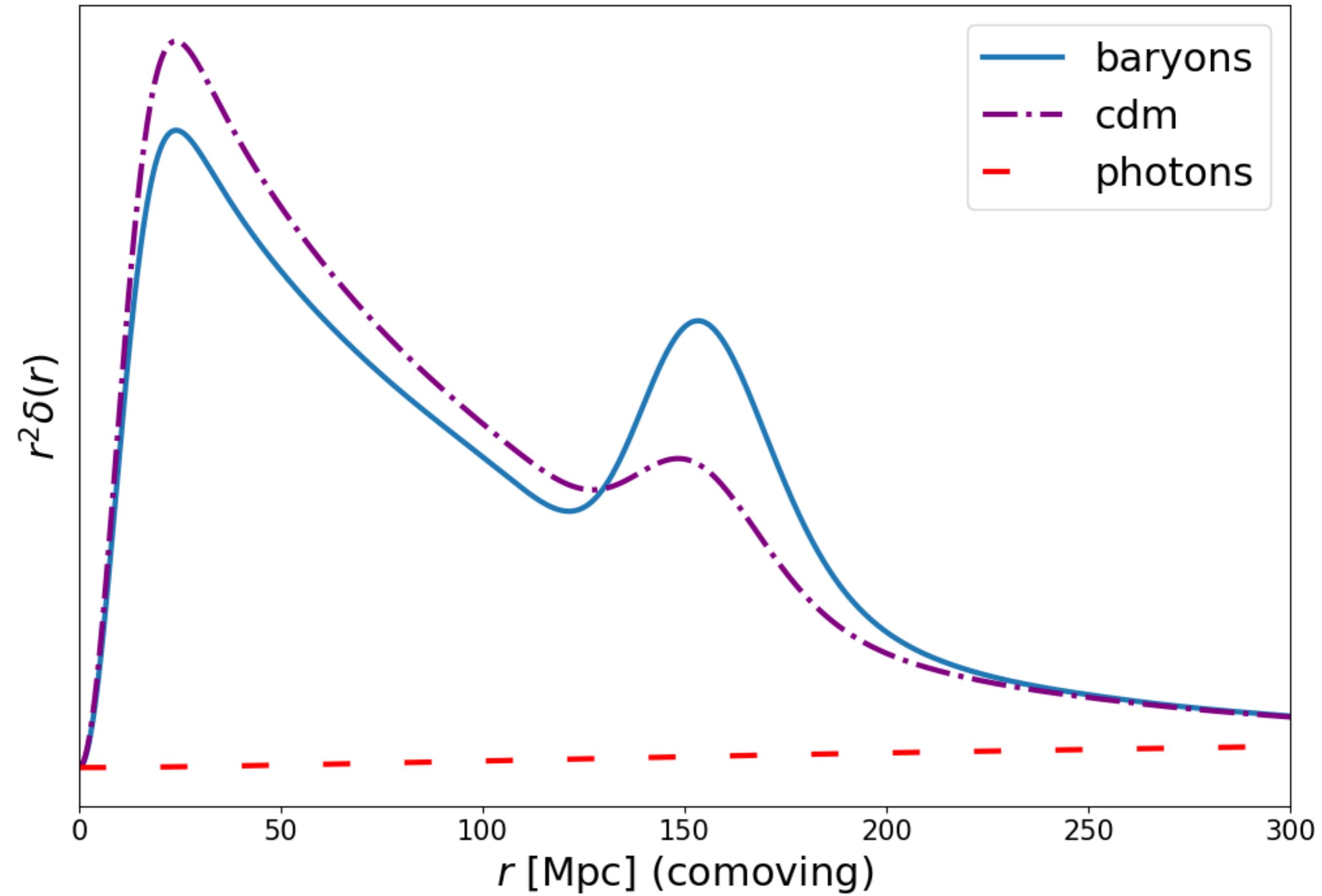
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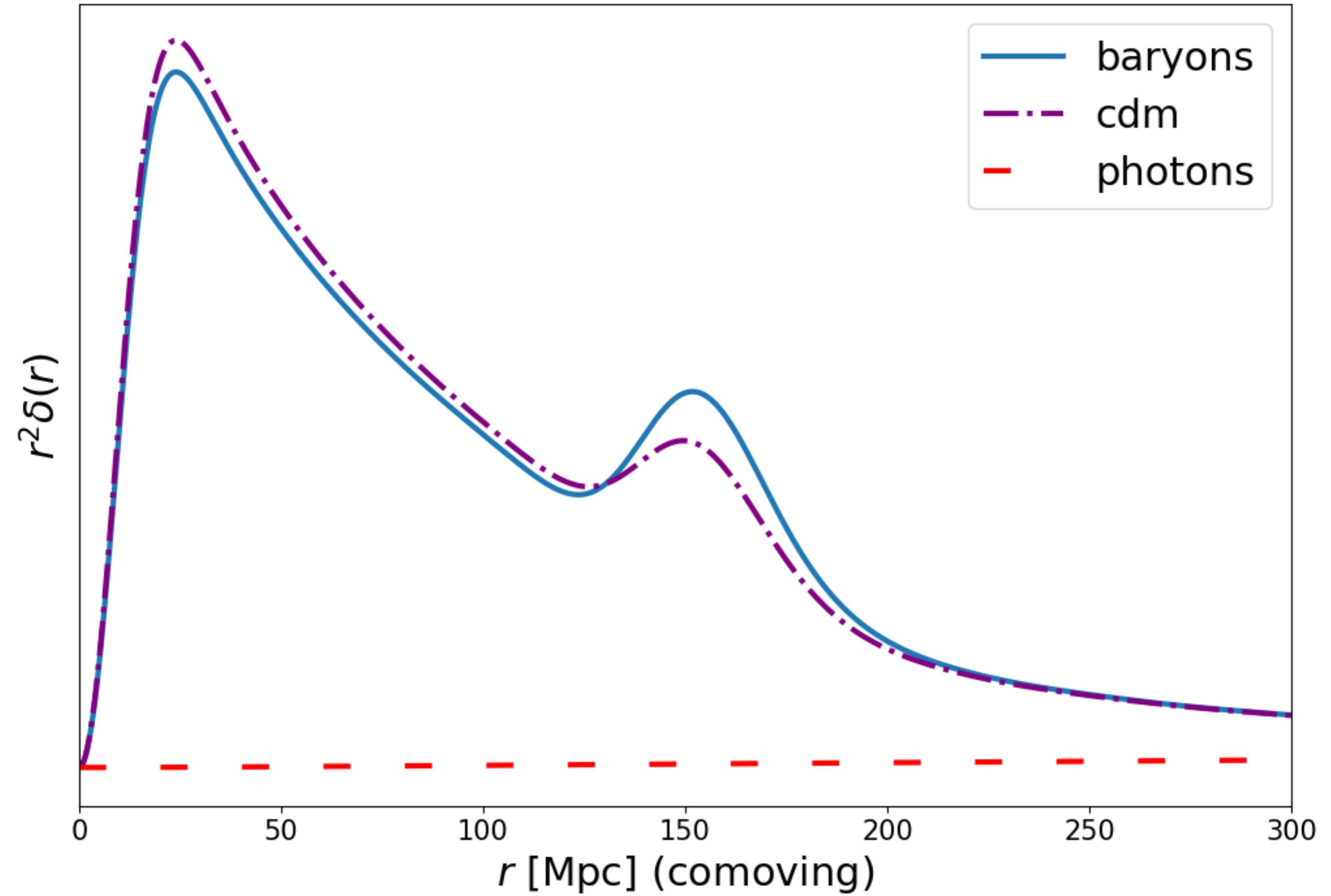
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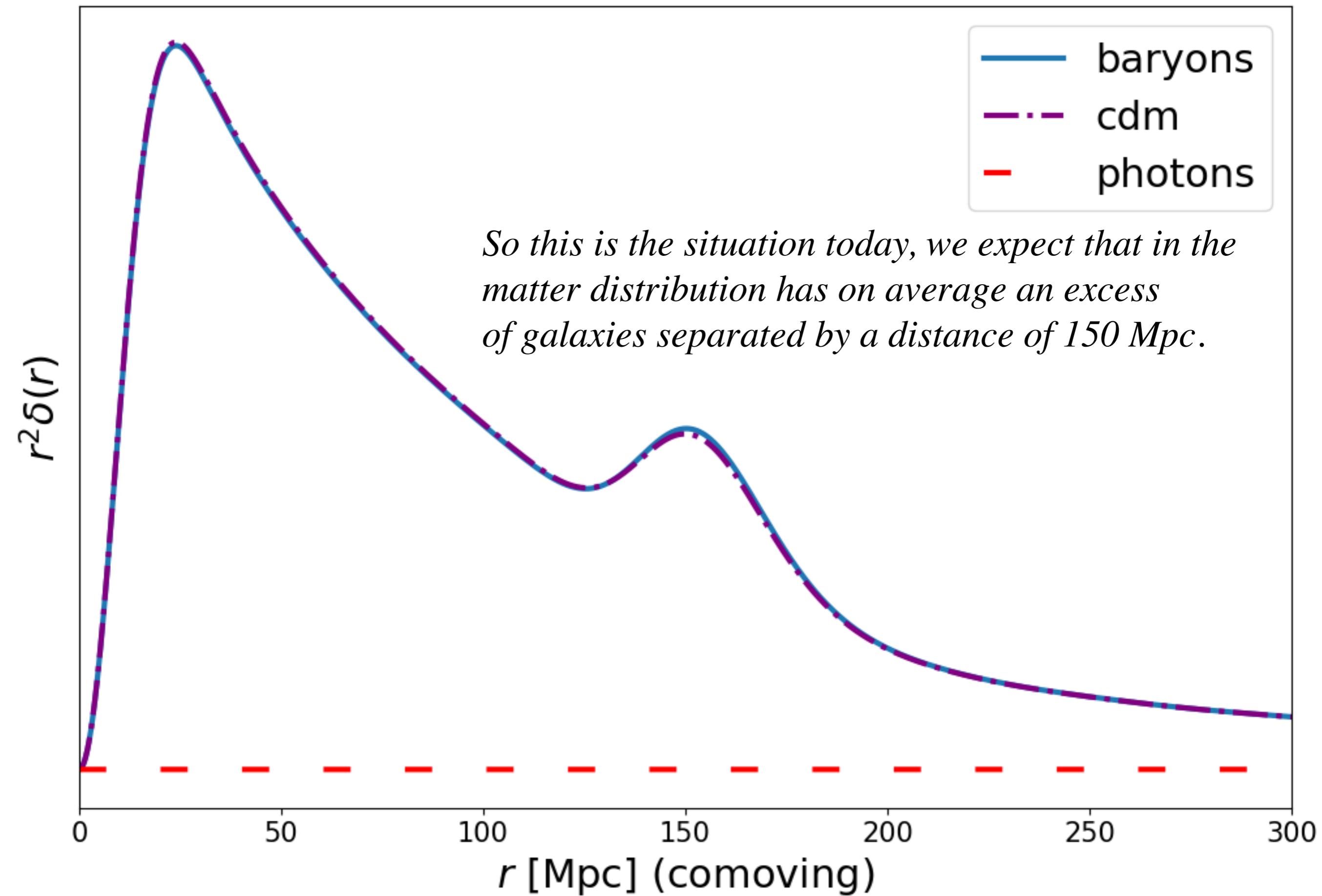
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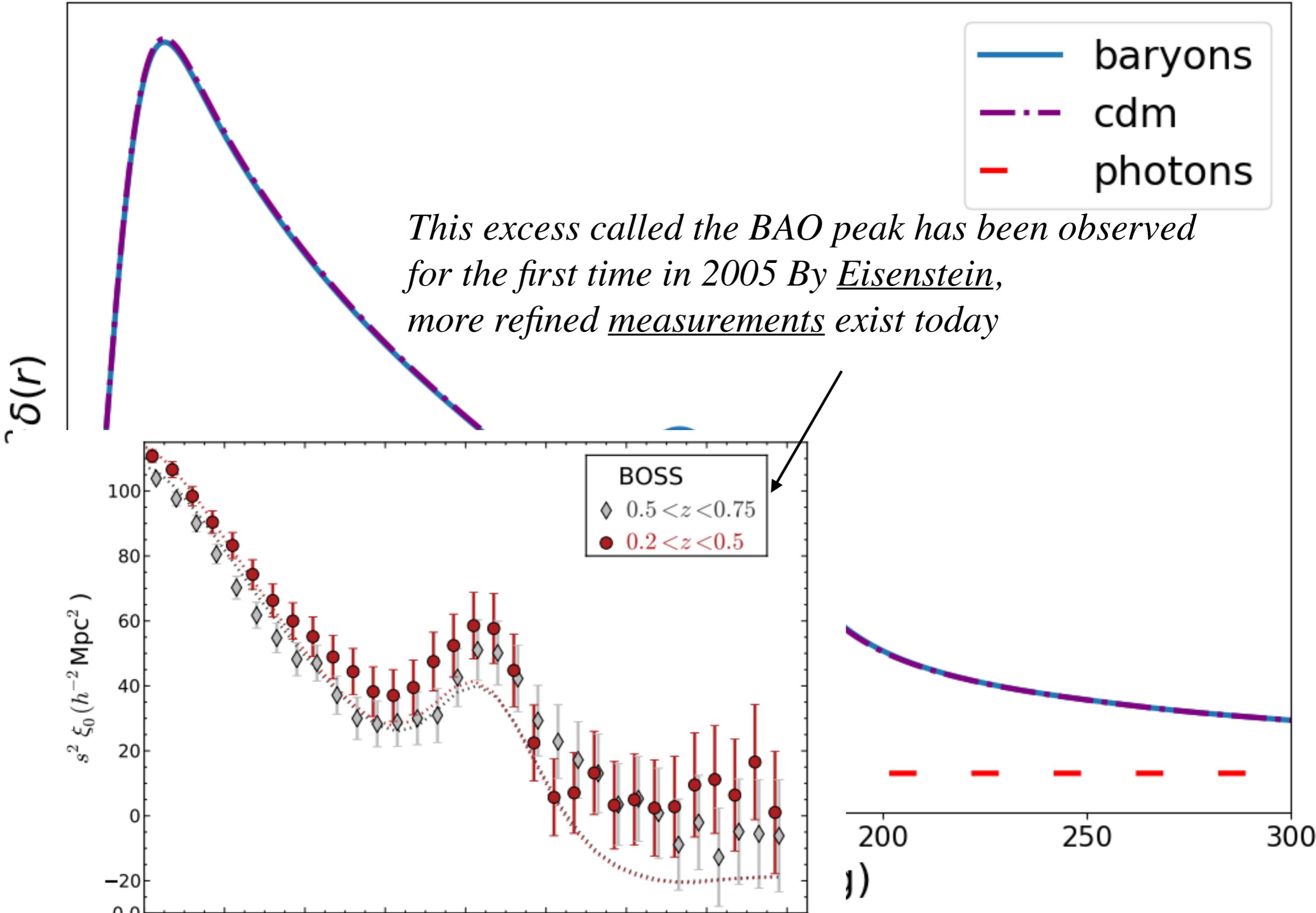
redshift: 11



redshift: 0



redshift: 0



See you next week !

$$ds^2 = a^2(\eta)(-d\eta^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2)$$

$$d\eta = dt/a$$

Eta conformal time while t is the cosmological time

In reality, the decoupling is not instantaneous, so we have to compute the probability that a photon last scatter of an electron at a given time t

The probability for a photon to scatter on an electron per unit of time is given by

$$\frac{dP_{\text{scatter}}}{dt} = n_e c \sigma_T$$

↓ ↓

electron density Thomson scattering cross section

We are interested by the probability that the photon scatters between t and $t+dt$, and then propagate freely (last scatter), it is called the visibility function $g(t)$

$$g(t)dt = n_e c \sigma_T dt \times P_{\text{noscatter}}(t, t_0).$$

To compute $P_{\text{noscatter}}(t, t_0)$ we divide the time between t and t_0 in a set of n intervals $\delta_t = \frac{(t_0 - t)}{n}$

$$P_{\text{noscatter}}(t, t_0) = \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - dP_{\text{scatter}}(t_i) \delta t) \sim \prod_{i=1}^n e^{-dP_{\text{scatter}}(t_i) \delta t} \sim e^{-\sum_{i=1}^n dP_{\text{scatter}}(t_i) \delta t}$$

$$\stackrel{n \rightarrow \infty}{=} \exp \left(- \int_t^{t_0} n_e c \sigma_T \, dt \right) = \exp(-\tau)$$

The visibility function as a function of redshift is given by

$$g(z) \equiv \frac{n_e c \sigma_T}{(1+z) H(z)} e^{-\tau}$$

