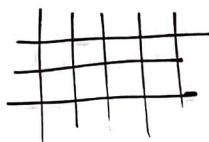


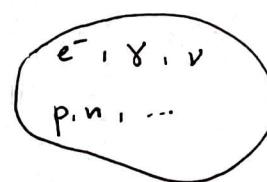
## 6) EINSTEIN AND BOLTZMANN EQUATIONS

GRAVITY



sets the metric

PARTICLES



define the energy content

Let's review the Einstein equation on the gravity side

$$G_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} R g_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu} - \Lambda g_{\mu\nu}$$

The Ricci tensors and scalars are obtained from the

FLRW metric:  $g_{\mu\nu} = (-1, \dot{a}^2, \dot{a}^2, \dot{a}^2)$ , such that:

$$R_{\mu\nu} = \Gamma_{\mu\nu,\alpha}^\beta - \Gamma_{\mu\alpha,\nu}^\alpha + \Gamma_{\beta\alpha}^\alpha \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\beta - \Gamma_{\beta\nu}^\alpha \Gamma_{\mu\alpha}^\beta, \quad \Gamma_{\mu\nu,\alpha}^\beta = \frac{\partial \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\beta}{\partial x^\alpha}$$

Remember that  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} \left( \frac{\partial g_{\alpha\nu}}{\partial x^\beta} + \frac{\partial g_{\beta\nu}}{\partial x^\alpha} - \frac{\partial g_{\alpha\beta}}{\partial x^\nu} \right)$

and  $\Gamma_{ij}^0 = \dot{a}\alpha \delta_{ij}$ ,  $\Gamma_{0j}^i = \Gamma_{j0}^i = \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \delta_{ij}$ .

Thus the components of  $R_{\mu\nu}$  are:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{for } \nu=0 : R_{00} &= -\Gamma_{0i,0}^i - \Gamma_{j0}^i \Gamma_{0i}^j = -\frac{d}{dt} \left( \delta_{ii} \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right) - \left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 \delta_{ij} \delta_{ij} \\ &= -3 \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a^2} \dot{a} - 3 \left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = -3 \frac{\ddot{a}}{a}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{for } \mu=\nu=i=j : R_{ij} = \delta_{ij} (2\dot{a}^2 + \ddot{a}a)$$

The Ricci scalar is then easily obtained as:

$$R = g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu} = g^{00} R_{00} + g^{ii} R_{ii} = -1 R_{00} + a^{-2} R_{ii}$$

↑   ↑

inverse of  $g_{\mu\nu} = (-1, a^2 \delta_{ij}) \Rightarrow g^{\mu\nu} = (-1, a^{-2} \delta_{ij})$

$$= -R_{00} + a^{-2} R_{ii}$$

$$= +3 \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{3}{a^2} (2\dot{a}^2 + \ddot{a}a) = 6 \left( \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 \right)$$

\*  $T_\mu^\nu = (-\rho, P, P, P)$

\* The CC term can be counted inside of  $T_{\mu\nu}$

$$T_{\mu\nu}^\Lambda = -\frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G} \delta_{\mu\nu} \quad \text{or} \quad T_{\mu}^{\Lambda \nu} = -\frac{\Lambda}{8\pi G} \delta_{\mu}^{\nu}$$

$$= -P_\Lambda (1, 1, 1, 1)$$

We have  $P_\Lambda = -P_\Lambda$  or  $\omega = -1$ .

Dimensionally:  $[\rho] = M^4$  and  $[G] = M^{-2} \Rightarrow [\Lambda] = M^2$ .

Fixing the indices to 00 and ii, we get the two FRIEDMANN EQUATIONS:

$$00 : R_{00} - \frac{1}{2} g_{00} R = -3 \cancel{\frac{\ddot{a}}{a}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \cdot 6 \left( \cancel{\frac{\ddot{a}}{a}} + \left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 \right)}_{3H^2, H = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}} = 8\pi G \overset{||}{T}_{00}$$

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi}{3} G \rho \quad (\text{for } k=0, \text{FLAT universe})$$

- We introduced  $H_0^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho_{cr}$ , such that :

$$\left(\frac{H}{H_0}\right)^2 = \sum_{\text{species}} \Omega_s a^{-3(w+1)}, \quad w = \begin{cases} 0, & m \\ \frac{1}{3}, & r \\ -1, & \Lambda \end{cases}$$

The 2<sup>nd</sup> Friedmann equation comes from  $\mu_{ij} = ij$  or equivalently from the 1<sup>st</sup> and the continuity equation

- $\dot{\rho} + 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} (\rho + P) = 0 \quad \& \quad \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho$ , such that:

Namely:  $\left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho \quad | \cdot$

$$2 \cancel{\frac{\dot{a}}{a}} \left( \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} - \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^2 \right) = 4 \cancel{\frac{8\pi G}{3}} \left( -3 \cancel{\frac{\dot{a}}{a}} (\rho + P) \right)$$

$$\ddot{\frac{a}{a}} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho - \frac{4\pi G}{3} (3\rho + 3P) = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} (P + 3P)$$

2<sup>nd</sup> Friedmann

OR, MORE DIRECTLY :

$$R_{ij} - \frac{1}{2} R g_{ij} = 8\pi G T_{ij}, \quad T_{ij} = g_{ik} T^k_j = a^2 P \delta_{ij}$$

$$\delta_{ij} \left( 2\dot{a}^2 + \ddot{a}a - \cancel{\frac{1}{2}} \cancel{R} \left( \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} \right) a^2 = 8\pi G a^2 P \right)$$

$$-2\ddot{a}a - \cancel{\frac{1}{2}} \dot{a}^2 = 48\pi G a^2 P \quad | : a^2$$

$$\ddot{\frac{a}{a}} = -\frac{1}{2} \cancel{t^2} - 4\pi G P = -\frac{4\pi G}{3} (P + 3P) \quad \text{it's the same}$$

- The EINSTEIN equations "contain" the continuity eq.  $\nabla_\mu T^\mu_0 = 0$ .

Short summary :

$$1^{\text{st}} : \left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 = H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} p,$$

$$2^{\text{nd}} : \frac{\ddot{a}}{a} = - \frac{4\pi G}{3} (p + 3P),$$

$$\text{Continuity} : \dot{p} + 3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} (p + P) = 0.$$

sum over all sources / species  
k=0

### LiOUVILLE - BOLTZMANN EQUATION

The central equation that describes particles in the early universe concerns the evolution of the distribution function for each species, i.e.  $f_s(\vec{x}, \vec{p}, t)$ .

In the absence of sources, or drains, and for stable species, the total number in a given phase space volume is:

$$dN = f(x, p, t) d^3x \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3},$$

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = 0 = \frac{\partial N}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} \dot{x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial p} \dot{p} = 0,$$

$$\text{OR} : \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \dot{x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} \dot{p} = 0.$$

For example, the Harmonic Oscillator gives:

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2} kx^2$$

$$\dot{x} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} = \frac{p}{m}, \quad \dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = -kx \quad (F = -\nabla V)$$

$$= -kx$$

$$= ma$$

$$= m\ddot{x}$$

Then the Liouville operator becomes

$$\partial_t f + \partial_x f \frac{p}{m} + \partial_p f (-kx) = 0.$$

For a much more in-depth reading, see Binney, Tremaine:

Galactic Dynamics (2008), p. 561. (or Weinberg's: Astrophysics (2021))

A static equilibrium distribution satisfies  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = 0$ ,

this is true if  $f = f(E)$  only, Jeans theorem.

H.O.

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \frac{p^2}{m} + \frac{1}{2} kx^2 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial E}{\partial x} = kx, \quad \frac{\partial E}{\partial p} = \frac{p}{m}$$

$$0 = \frac{df}{dt} = \partial_t f + \frac{\partial f}{\partial E} \frac{\partial E}{\partial x} \frac{p}{m} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial E} \frac{\partial E}{\partial p} kx =$$

$$\partial_t f + \frac{\partial f}{\partial E} \left( kx \frac{p}{m} - \frac{p}{m} kx \right) = \partial_t f = 0.$$

Once we add sources / drains or particle-changing interactions, we have:

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

→ collision term

The collision terms will encode the microscopic physics, detailed  $p$ -dependence and statistics.

Once all the components of the plasma are in equilibrium, this term vanishes:

$$C[f_{\text{eq}}] = 0, \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{df_{\text{eq}}}{dt} = 0.$$

- We will now move from Minkowski to FLRW to derive the Liouville operator in an expanding universe, using the proper on-shell relations.

$$\begin{aligned} P^2 &= P_\mu P^\mu = -E^2 + a^2 \vec{P}^2 = -m^2 \\ &= g_{\mu\nu} P^\mu P^\nu = g_{00} P^{02} + g_{ii} P^{i2} = -E^2 + P^{i2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{on shell: } E^2 - p^2 = E^2 - a^2 P^2 = m^2$$

$$p = aP$$

We will separate the radial parts  $p = \sqrt{\sum p_i^2}$  from the directional parts:  $\hat{p}^i = \frac{p^i}{p}$ , such that:

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \partial_t f + \partial_x i f \dot{x}^i + \partial_p f \dot{p} + \partial_{\hat{p}} f \dot{\hat{p}}^i.$$

Now, a homogeneous & isotropic universe has

Homogeneous & isotropic:  $\partial_{x^i} f |_{x^i \rightarrow 0}, \partial_{\dot{p}^i} f |_{\dot{p}^i \rightarrow 0}$ .

This is true at leading order, without any metric perturbations. If we turn on  $\phi$  &  $\psi$  potentials, these terms would have to be included. Without them:

$$\boxed{\frac{df}{dt} \approx \partial_t f + \partial_p f \dot{p}}.$$

$\dot{p}$  is obtained from the geodesic (no interactions here, so we're "free-falling"),  $P^\mu = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda}$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dP^\circ}{d\lambda} &= \frac{dP^\circ}{dt} \frac{dt}{d\lambda} = P^\circ \frac{dP^\circ}{dt} = -\Gamma_{ij}^\circ P^i P^j = -\delta_{ij} \dot{x}^a P^{i2} \\ &\quad \parallel \quad \parallel \quad \parallel \quad \quad \quad = -\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \underbrace{\dot{x}^a}_{P^{a2}} = p^a \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{so: } E \frac{dE}{dt} = -H p^2$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} (E^2) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} (p^2 - m^2) = p \frac{dp}{dt} = -H p^2,$$

$$\text{FINALLY: } \frac{dp}{dt} = -H p,$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} - H p \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} = C[f]}.$$

- This immediately tells us how  $n$  behaves:

$$dN = f d^3x \times \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} = n d^3x , \quad \int_p = \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} ,$$

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = \int_p \frac{df}{dt} \quad \text{[shaded box]}$$

$$= \int_p \partial_t f - H \int_p p \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} = \int_p C[f]$$

★:  $\partial_t n - H \int_0^\infty \frac{4\pi}{(2\pi)^3} p^2 dp p \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} = \int_p C[f] .$

- We will integrate the 2<sup>nd</sup> term by parts, taking into account that a regular distribution vanishes with  $p^u f \rightarrow 0$  for  $u=3$ :  $p^3 f(p) \xrightarrow[p \rightarrow \infty]{} 0$ .

You can convince yourself easily by expanding the

- FD or BE functions for  $p \rightarrow 0$  and  $p \rightarrow \infty$ .

$$p^3 f \Big|_0^\infty = 0 = \int dp \partial_p (p^3 f) = \int dp (p^3 \partial_p f + 3p^2 f)$$

$$\text{OR: } \int p^3 \partial_p f dp = -3 \int p^2 dp f$$

$$\star \Rightarrow \partial_t n + 3H \int_p f = \partial_t n + 3H n = \int_p C[f]$$

$\partial_t n + 3H n = \int_p C[f]$

- In the absence of interactions with  $C = 0$ , we get:

$$\partial_t n = -3 H n$$

$$\text{or } \frac{dn}{dt} = -3 \frac{\dot{a}}{a} n = -3 \frac{n}{a} \frac{da}{dt}$$

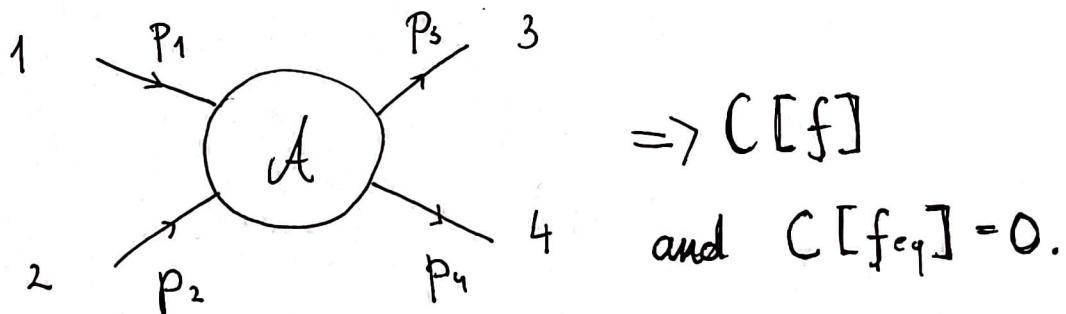
$$\text{or: } \frac{dn}{n} = -3 \frac{da}{a}, \ln n = -3 \ln a, \underline{\underline{n \propto a^{-3}}}$$

as expected.

- COLLISION TERMS and THERMALLY AVERAGED RATES  $\langle \sigma v \rangle$

These rates ~~are~~ defined and calculated for any type of process, such as scatterings (elastic, inelastic), annihilations and (inverse) decay rates.

We will consider a very generic 2-2 process:  $1+2 \rightarrow 3+4$



These interactions are local, they happen at a fixed point in space-time,  $(x, t)$ . Locally, space-time is Minkowski and four-momenta are conserved in the

usual way :  $\vec{p}_1^{\mu} + \vec{p}_2^{\mu} = \vec{p}_3^{\mu} + \vec{p}_4^{\mu}$ ,

or :  $E_1 + E_2 = E_3 + E_4$ ,

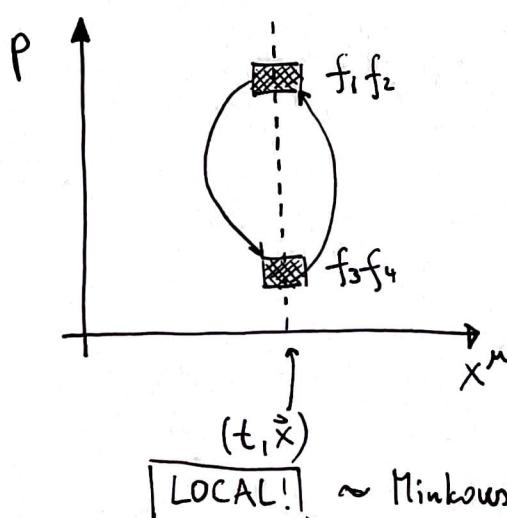
$$\vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2 = \vec{p}_3 + \vec{p}_4.$$

Moreover, all particles need to be on-shell

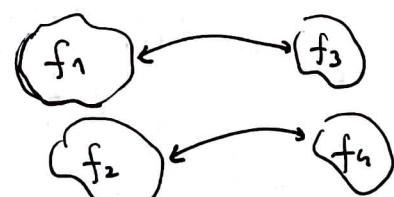
$$E_i^2 - p_i^2 = m_i^2 \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, 4$$

The amplitude  $A$  contains all the details of the microscopic interaction, such as <sup>the</sup> strength of interactions and momentum dependence (usually, the spins are averaged and we integrate over all the angles).

When these interactions are "strong enough", the momenta can be transferred efficiently (kinetic eq.) and type of species exchanged (chemical eq.).



- phase space gets "reshuffled"



**LOCAL!** ~ Minkowski, the usual QFT.

- Let us focus on  $f_1$  and the related  $n_1 = \int_p f_1$ :

$$\dot{n}_1 + 3Hn_1 = \int_{p_1} C [f(p_1)]$$

$\vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2 = \vec{p}_3 + \vec{p}_4$  collision term

"1" comes from the collision  
of "3+4", hence  $\oplus$

$$C [f_1(p_1)] = \sum_{\substack{\text{integration} \\ \text{over momenta} \\ \text{w. conservation \& invariance}}} \delta(E_1 + E_2 - E_3 - E_4) \overline{|A|^2} (\tilde{f}_3 \tilde{f}_4 - \tilde{f}_1 \tilde{f}_2)$$

usual energy conservation

$n_1$  changes when collided w. "2"

averaged amplitude squared (as in the usual QFT)

- The tildes stand for the statistical blocking/enhancing

$$\tilde{f}_i = f_i (1 \pm f_i)$$

↓ final state suppression

- + for bosons ( $\beta E$  enhancement),
- for fermions (FD blocking).

EXAMPLE :  $e_1^+ e_2^- \rightarrow e_3^+ e_4^-$  :  $\tilde{f}_1 \tilde{f}_2 \approx f_1(1-f_3) f_2(1-f_4)$ ,  
 $e_1 e_2 \rightarrow \gamma_3 \gamma_4$  :  $\tilde{f}_1 \tilde{f}_2 = f_1(1+f_3) f_2(1+f_4)$ .

- The sum over momenta of  $2, 3, 4$  is done in the

usual way :  $\int_{OS} d^4 p = \int_{p=0}^{\infty} \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\infty dE \underbrace{\delta(E^2 - p^2 - m^2)}_{f(E)}$

on-shell

$$= \int_p \int_0^\infty dE \frac{\delta(f=0)}{|f'|} = \int_p \int_0^\infty dE \frac{\delta(E - \sqrt{p^2 - m^2})}{|2E|}$$

• Combining all this, we get :

$$C[f_1] = \frac{1}{2E_1} \left( \prod_{i=2}^4 \int_{\pi_i} \right) (2\pi)^4 \delta^{(4)}(p_1^r + p_2^r - p_3^r - p_4^r) |\vec{A}|^2 \\ \times \left( \tilde{f}_3 \tilde{f}_4 - \tilde{f}_1 \tilde{f}_2 \right),$$

Where :  $\int_{\pi_i} = \int \frac{d^3 p_i}{(2\pi)^3 2E_i(p_i)} = \int_{p_i} \frac{1}{2E_i(p_i)},$

and :  $\delta^{(4)}(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4) = \delta(E_1 + E_2 - E_3 - E_4) \delta^{(3)}(\vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2 - \vec{p}_3 - \vec{p}_4).$

**GENERAL  
BOLTZMANN**

The final form of the Boltzmann equation is

$$\text{"1": } \dot{n}_1 + 3Hn_1 = \left( \prod_{i=1}^4 \int_{\pi_i} \right) (2\pi)^4 \delta^{(4)}(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4) |\vec{A}|^2 \times$$

$$\bar{a}^{-3} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (n_1 a^3)$$

$$[ f_1 f_2 (1 \pm f_3) (1 \pm f_4) - f_3 f_4 (1 \pm f_1) \\ (1 \pm f_2) ]$$

This is the central equation that we will use to keep track of the number densities  $n_1$ :

$$\bar{a}^{-3} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (n_1 a^3) = \left( \prod_{i=1}^4 \int_{\pi_i} \right) (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(\sum p) |\vec{A}|^2 (\tilde{f}_1 \tilde{f}_2 - \tilde{f}_3 \tilde{f}_4)$$

The Boltzmann equation that we derived is very general and holds for in- and out-of-equilibrium processes. However, for most practical purposes, we can simplify it further.

### SIMPLIFIED BOLTZMANN

in three steps:

i), Kinetic

ii), no blocking

iii),  $\mu = 0$  normalization

- (a) Kinetic equilibrium with rapid exchange of  $(E, p)$  guarantees that the distribution functions  $f_s$  depend only on  $E_s, T, \mu_s$

$$\text{FERMIONS : } f_s = \frac{1}{e^{(E_s - \mu_s)/T} + 1},$$

$$\text{BOSONS : } f_s = \frac{1}{e^{(E_s - \mu_s)/T} - 1}.$$

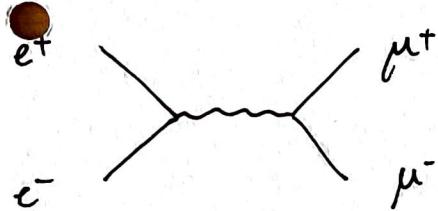
We assumed that all species  $s$  are equilibrated, so  $T_s = T$  for all  $s$ . Each species then has its own  $E_s = \sqrt{p_s^2 + m_s^2}$  and  $f_s$ , which in general depends on  $T$  and needs to be calculated  $\boxed{\mu_s \leftrightarrow n_s}$ .

ib) In chemical equilibrium, we also have:

$$\sum_{i \in \text{initial}} \mu_i = \sum_{i \in \text{final}} \mu_i,$$

which follows from conserved charges, like  $Q_{\text{em}}$ ,  $\Delta B = 0$ ,  $\Delta L = 0$ , etc. (baryon #, lepton #, flavour, ...)

EXAMPLE #1 QED in equilibrium



$$\mu_{e^+} + \mu_{e^-} = \mu_{\mu^+} + \mu_{\mu^-} \Rightarrow 2\mu_{e^-} = 2\mu_{\mu^-}$$

(see below)

We can always radiate a photon and charge is conserved, so:

Feynman diagram illustrating the emission of a photon by an electron ( $e^- \rightarrow e^- + \gamma$ ). An incoming electron ( $e^-$ ) emits a virtual photon ( $\gamma$ ) and becomes an outgoing electron ( $e^-$ ).

$$\mu_{e^-} = \mu_{e^-} + \mu_\gamma, \\ \Rightarrow \mu_\gamma = 0.$$

Another way to say the same thing is that  $\gamma$ 's are their own anti-particles and  $\mu$  measures the difference between  $n_s$  and  $n_{\bar{s}}$ , where  $s = \text{species}$ ,  $\bar{s} = \text{anti-species}$ .

EXAMPLE #2:

Feynman diagram illustrating the annihilation of an electron-positron pair ( $e^+ + e^- \rightarrow 2\gamma$ ). An incoming electron ( $e^-$ ) and positron ( $e^+$ ) interact via a virtual photon exchange to produce two photons ( $\gamma + \gamma$ ).

$$- \text{EUV64} - \quad \mu_{e^+} + \mu_{e^-} = 2\mu_\gamma = 0 \\ \mu_{e^+} = -\mu_{e^-}.$$

ii) The second step towards simplifying the Boltzmann equation is to focus on  $T < E - \mu$  part of the distribution. There, the distinction between BE & FD goes away and we go to MB (Maxwell-Boltzmann)

$$f_{FD/BE} = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)/T} + 1} \rightarrow e^{-(E-\mu)/T} = f_{MB}.$$

Furthermore, we have:  $e^{-\frac{E-\mu}{T}} \ll 1$ , because  $E - \mu > T$ , so we can neglect the statistical factors.

$$\tilde{f}_3 \tilde{f}_4 - \tilde{f}_1 \tilde{f}_2 \rightarrow f_3 f_4 - f_1 f_2 \quad \begin{matrix} \text{all with the} \\ \text{same } T \\ \text{(kinetic eq.)} \end{matrix}$$

$$\rightarrow e^{-(E_3+E_4-\mu_3-\mu_4)/T} - e^{-(E_1+E_2-\mu_1-\mu_2)/T}$$

• Energy is always conserved, so:  $E_3 + E_4 = E_1 + E_2$ , which implies:

$$\rightarrow e^{-(E_1+E_2)/T} \left( e^{(\mu_3+\mu_4)/T} - e^{(\mu_1+\mu_2)/T} \right).$$

Now we see how  $C[f_{eq}] = 0$ . When full chemical equilibrium is reached,  $\mu_1 + \mu_2 = \mu_3 + \mu_4$  and the term in the bracket goes to zero, i.e.  $C[f_{eq}] = 0$ .

- We mentioned that one can always discuss either  $u(t)$  or  $\mu(t)$  interchangeably. This is particularly transparent in the MB limit:

$$n_s = g_s \int_p^{\text{MB}} f_s = g_s e^{\mu_s/T} \int_p^{\text{MB}} e^{-E_s/T}$$

(dropping the species index)

$$n = g e^{\mu/T} \underbrace{\int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-\frac{\sqrt{p^2 + \mu^2}}{T}}}_{n^{(0)}}.$$

The  $(0)$  superscripts are the  $\mu=0$  number densities. It turns out that it's very convenient to normalize to this quantity, when studying how processes go out of equilibrium.

$$n = g e^{\mu/T} n^{(0)}$$

$\boxed{\mu=0}$  number densities can be evaluated easily:

a) massless limit:  $\mu=0$ ,  $E=p$  ( $\gamma$ 's,  $\nu$ 's, any "radiation")

$$\begin{aligned} n_{\mu=0}^{(0)} &= g \int_0^\infty \frac{4\pi p^2 dp}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-p/T}, \quad x = \frac{p}{T}, \quad dx = \frac{1}{T} dp \\ &= g \frac{T^3}{2\pi^2} \underbrace{\int_0^\infty x^2 e^{-x} dx}_{2!} = \frac{g T^3}{\pi^2}. \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{low T photons, MB approx.} \\ (\gamma \text{'s}, g=2, \mu_\gamma=0) \end{array} \\ &\quad n_\gamma^{(0)} = \frac{2}{\pi^2} T^3 \end{aligned}$$

b) massive case, zero  $\mu$ , MB limit:

$$E = \sqrt{m^2 + p^2} = m \sqrt{1 + (\frac{p}{m})^2} \approx m + \frac{p^2}{2m}$$

$$n_{m>p}^{(0)} = g \int_0^\infty \frac{p^2 dp}{2\pi^2} e^{-m/T} e^{-p^2/(2mT)}, \quad x = \frac{p^2}{2mT} \in [0, \infty]$$

$$= \frac{g}{2\pi^2} e^{-m/T} mT \int_0^\infty dx \sqrt{2mT} x^{1/2} e^{-x} \frac{dp}{mT}$$

$$= \frac{g}{2\pi^2} e^{-m/T} (mT)^{3/2} \underbrace{\int_0^\infty x^{1/2} e^{-x} dx}_{\Gamma(3/2)} = g \left(\frac{mT}{2\pi}\right)^{3/2} e^{-m/T}.$$

$$\Gamma(3/2) = \frac{1}{2}! = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$$

### A short summary

$$n_{m=0}^{(0)} = \frac{g T^3}{\pi^2},$$

$$n_{m>p}^{(0)} = g \left(\frac{mT}{2\pi}\right)^{3/2} e^{-m/T}.$$

How should we interpret this? Massless particles will scale as  $n \propto T^3 \propto a^{-3}$ , as is the case for photons.

Massive particles with  $\mu=0$  have equal amount of particles and anti-particles. When the temperature  $T$  drops below  $m$ , annihilations can still take place efficiently:  $f\bar{f} \rightarrow 2\gamma$  or  $f\bar{f}_1 \rightarrow f_1\bar{f}_2$ , but the

reverse process is energetically disfavoured by the  $e^{-\frac{m}{kT}}$  factor. We say that the equilibrium  $n_m^{(o)}$  becomes Boltzmann suppressed at low  $T$ , below  $f_m$  threshold.

Using  $n_s^{(o)}$ , we can rewrite the part of the Boltzmann equation as :

$$e^{(\mu_3 + \mu_4)/T} - e^{(\mu_1 + \mu_2)/T} = \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^{(o)} n_4^{(o)}} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)}}.$$

Thus we simplified :  $\tilde{f}_3 \tilde{f}_4 - \tilde{f}_1 \tilde{f}_2 \approx e^{-(E_1 + E_2)/T} \left( \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^{(o)} n_4^{(o)}} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)}} \right)$ .

The simplified Boltzmann equation is given by :

$$\dot{n}_1 + 3Hn_1 = \left( \frac{4}{\prod_{i=1}^4 \pi_i} \int \right) (2\pi)^4 \delta^{(4)} (\sum p) \overline{|A|^2} \underbrace{\frac{e^{-(E_1 + E_2)/T}}{n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)}}}_{\langle \sigma v \rangle} \left( \frac{n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)}}{n_3^{(o)} n_4^{(o)}} n_3 n_4 - n_1 n_2 \right)$$

### SIMPLIFIED BOLTZMANN EQUATION

$$a^{-3} \frac{d(n_1 a^3)}{dt} = n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)} \langle \sigma v \rangle \left( \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^{(o)} n_4^{(o)}} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)}} \right),$$

### THERMALLY AVERAGED CROSS-SECTION $\langle \sigma v \rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \sigma v \rangle &= \frac{1}{n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)}} \left( \prod_{i=1}^4 \int \right) \delta^{(4)} (\sum p) \overline{|A|^2} e^{-(E_1 + E_2)/T}, \quad f_i^{(o)} = e^{-E_i/T} \\ &= \frac{1}{n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)}} \int f_1^{(o)} f_2^{(o)} \int_{\prod_{i=1}^4 \pi_i} (2\pi)^4 \delta^{(4)} (\sum p) \frac{\overline{|A|^2}}{4E_1 E_2}. \quad \int_{\pi_i} = \int \frac{1}{2E_i} \end{aligned}$$

- First, let's see why this is called a thermally averaged cross-section, then we will do a dimensional analysis of the simplified Boltzmann.

- The usual cross-section  $\bar{\sigma}_{12 \rightarrow 34}$  is defined as (see e.g. PDG Review Kinematics)

$$\bar{\sigma} = \int_{\Pi_{34}} (2\pi)^4 \delta^{(4)}(\sum p) \frac{\overline{|dt|^2}}{4E_1 E_2 \bar{\sigma}_{12}} = \int_{\Pi_{34}} d\bar{\sigma},$$

Where :  $\bar{\sigma}_{12} = \frac{\sqrt{(p_1 p_2)^2 - (m_1 m_2)^2}}{E_1 E_2} = \begin{cases} \text{for a central collision} \\ 2, m_{12} \rightarrow 0 \text{ & } p_{12} = E_{12}, \\ \frac{m_1 m_2 \sqrt{(1+v_1 v_2)^2 - 1}}{m_1 + m_2} = \sqrt{2v_1 v_2}, \end{cases}$

N.B.:  $\langle v_{12} \rangle = 0$ .

central collision:  $p_1 \cdot p_2 = p_1^x \cdot p_2^x + p_1^y \cdot p_2^y \Rightarrow m_{12} = 0 \quad p_1 = E_1(1,1), \quad p_2 = E_2(1,-1) \Rightarrow p_1 \cdot p_2 = E_1 E_2 (1+1)$

$m_{12} > |\vec{p}_{12}| : p_{12} \sim m_{12}(1, \pm v_{12}) \Rightarrow p_1 \cdot p_2 = m_1 m_2 (1 - v_1 (-v_2))$

- Using this notation,  $\langle \bar{\sigma} \rangle$  is rewritten as :

$$\langle \bar{\sigma} \rangle = \frac{1}{N_1^{(o)} N_2^{(o)}} \int_{P_{12}} f_1^{(o)} f_2^{(o)} \int_{\Pi_{34}} d\bar{\sigma} \bar{\sigma}_{12},$$

which is really a thermal average of  $\int_{\Pi_{34}} d\bar{\sigma} \bar{\sigma}_{12}$ , since :

$\frac{1}{N_1^{(o)} N_2^{(o)}} \underbrace{\int_{p_1} f_1^{(o)}}_{N_1^{(o)}} \underbrace{\int_{p_2} f_2^{(o)}}_{N_2^{(o)}} = 1, \quad \text{&} \quad \langle \sigma \rangle = \frac{1}{N_1^{(o)} N_2^{(o)}} \int_{P_{12}} f_1^{(o)} f_2^{(o)} \sigma.$

• What does  $\langle \sigma v \rangle$  do? The microscopic theory, encoded inside of it will produce  $|t\vec{t}|^2$ , which is a function of masses and momenta. Thermal averaging will then ~~shuffle~~<sup>pick out</sup> the statistically favoured momenta at a given  $T$ . For example, when  $m_i \rightarrow 0$ , all that is left are masses of intermediate mediators and momenta.

E.g. QED  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ ,  $m_\gamma = 0$ ,  $T \gg m_\gamma$ , only  $p_i$  remain and thermal averaging replaces  $p \rightarrow T$ .

On the other hand, if the temperature drops below a given mass, the  $p$  is replaced by  $m$  (on dimensional grounds and in the calc. of  $|t\vec{t}|^2$  when  $p_i \ll m_i$ ), such that  $p \rightarrow m$  instead of  $T$ . (as in  $G_T$ , the Thomson)

# DIMENSIONAL ANALYSIS of the SIMPLIFIED BOLTZMANN

$$a^{-3} \frac{d(u_1 a^3)}{dt} = n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)} \langle \bar{v}_r \rangle \left( \underbrace{\frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^{(o)} n_4^{(o)}} - \frac{u_1 u_2}{n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)}}}_{O(1), \text{dimensional}} \right)$$

↓  
 [a] cancels out  
 [t]  $\sim H^{-1}$   
 $n_1^2$   
 $n_1$

$$\sim \chi_1 H = \chi_1 \Gamma, \quad \Gamma = n_2^{(o)} \langle \bar{v}_r \rangle$$

" interaction rate.

- The LHS is essentially set by the Hubble rate. The universe is expanding and  $H$  grows with  $T$ , when we go back in time.
- The RHS depends on  $\Gamma$  and the  $(\dots)^{\text{SAHA}}$  factor.

When  $\Gamma \approx H$  the interactions are ~~out~~ the verge of equilibration. When  $\Gamma \gg H$ , they are fully <sup>Boltzmann</sup> equilibrated but for the equality to hold, the

SAHA

$$\text{APPROXIMATION : } \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^{(o)} n_4^{(o)}} = \frac{u_1 u_2}{n_1^{(o)} n_2^{(o)}}, \quad \text{needs to be valid then}$$

- go back to  $f_{BS}$ , the SAHA equation and energy conservation implies :  $e^{(\mu_1 + \mu_2)T} = e^{(\mu_3 + \mu_4)T}$