

Entropy injection

2111. 11444, 1109.2829

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\rho}_\phi + 3H\rho_\phi = -\Gamma_\phi \rho_\phi & \Rightarrow \rho_\phi(t) = \rho_\phi(t_i) \left(\frac{a_i}{a}\right)^3 e^{-\Gamma t} \quad (1) \\ \dot{\rho}_r + 4H\rho_r = +\Gamma_\phi \rho_\phi \end{cases}$$

from the continuity eq

$$\dot{\rho}_\phi = \rho_\phi(t_i) \left[-3 \frac{a_i^3}{a_i} \dot{a}_i - \left(\frac{a_i}{a}\right)^3 \frac{1}{a} \right] e^{-t\Gamma_\phi}$$
$$\dot{\rho}_\phi + 3H\rho_\phi = -\rho_\phi \Gamma_\phi$$

I'm assuming instantaneous thermalization ($\Gamma \gg H$)

also assume all radiation species are in eq: $g_* = g_{*S}$.

Otherwise, I would have to keep track of what species does X decay into.

I can rewrite

$$\rho = \frac{2\pi^2}{45} g_{*S} T^3 \Rightarrow T = \left(\frac{45 \rho}{2\pi^2 g_{*S}} \right)^{1/3}$$
$$\Rightarrow \rho_r = \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_* \left(\frac{45 \rho}{2\pi^2 g_{*S}} \right)^{4/3} = \frac{\pi^2}{30} g_* \frac{45}{2\pi^2} \frac{1}{g_{*S}} \left(\frac{45 \rho^4}{2\pi^2 g_{*S}} \right)^{1/3}$$
$$\Rightarrow \rho_r = \frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{45 S^4}{2\pi^2 g_{*S}} \right)^{1/3} R^{-4} \quad (2)$$

The Hubble rate is $H^2 = \frac{\rho_\phi + \rho_r}{3M_p^2} \quad (3)$

Entropy: $dS = \frac{dQ}{T} = - \frac{d(a^3 \rho_\phi)}{T} = \frac{a^3}{T} \Gamma_\phi \rho_\phi dt$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{S} = \frac{a^3}{T} \Gamma_\phi \rho_\phi = a^3 \Gamma_\phi \rho_\phi \left(\frac{2\pi^2 g_{*S} a^3}{45 S} \right)^{1/3} \Rightarrow \dot{S} = \left(\frac{2\pi^2 g_{*S}}{45 S} \right)^{1/3} a^4 \Gamma_\phi \rho_\phi$$
$$\dot{S} S^{1/3} = \left(\frac{2\pi^2}{45} \right)^{1/3} g_{*S}^{1/3} a^4 \Gamma_\phi \rho_\phi \quad (4)$$

(1) - (4) are enough to close the system

$$\textcircled{4}: \int S^{1/3} dS = \left(\frac{2\pi^2}{4S}\right)^{1/3} \int dt e^{\alpha} \rho_{\phi} \Gamma_{\phi} g_{*S}^{1/3}$$

$$\Rightarrow S_f^{4/3} = S_i^{4/3} + \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{2\pi^2}{4S}\right)^{1/3} \int_{t_i}^{t_f} dt e^{\alpha} \rho_{\phi} \Gamma_{\phi} g_{*S}^{1/3}$$

- exponential decay: $\Gamma_{\phi} = \text{constant} \Rightarrow$ need numerical solution

- middle decay approximation: $\Gamma_{\phi} = \delta(t - \tau_d)$

\rightarrow allows analytic treatment

$$S_f^{4/3} = S_i^{4/3} + \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{2\pi^2}{4S}\right)^{1/3} e^{\alpha_d} \rho_{\phi}^d (g_{*S}^d)^{1/3}$$

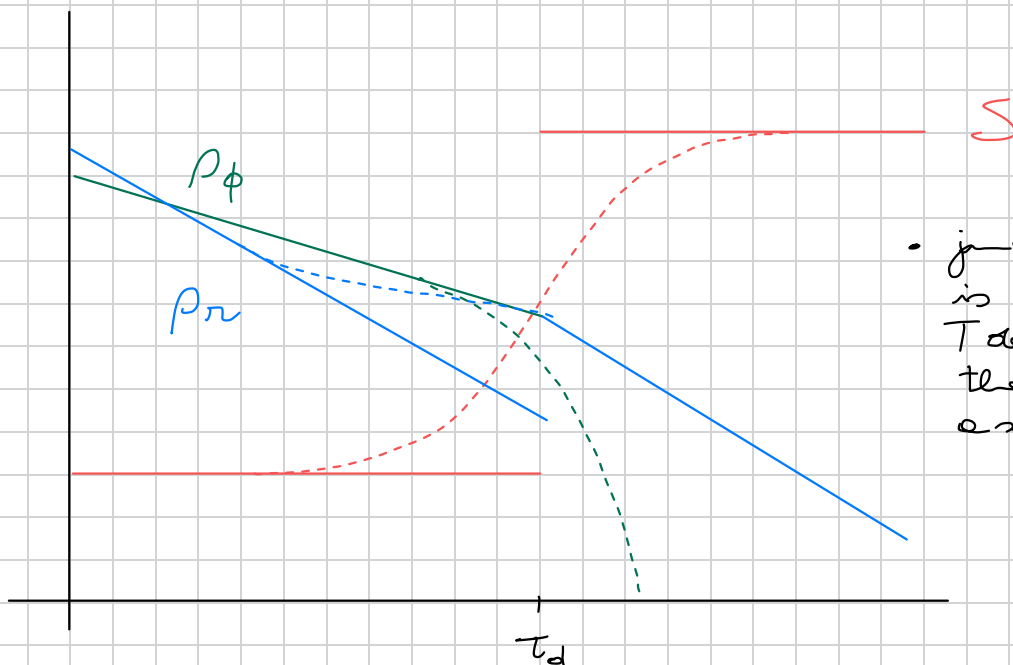
Assume $\rho_{\phi} \gg \rho_r$ at $t = \tau_d$

$$\Rightarrow S_f^{4/3} \approx \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{2\pi^2}{4S}\right)^{1/3} e^{\alpha_d} \rho_{\phi}^d (g_{*S}^d)^{1/3}$$

$$\Delta \equiv \frac{S_f}{S_i} \gg 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho_r|_{\tau_d^+} = \left(\frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{4S}{2\pi^2 g_{*S}}\right)^{1/3} e^{-\alpha} \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{2\pi^2}{4S}\right)^{1/3} e^{\alpha_d} \rho_{\phi}^d (g_{*S}^d)^{1/3}\right)_{\tau_d^+} = \rho_{\phi}|_{\tau_d^-}$$

$$\rho_{\phi}|_{\tau_d^+} = 0$$



• jump in $\rho_r (\Rightarrow T)$ is not real: T decreases during the decay, just at a slower rate

Consequence for a decoupled specie

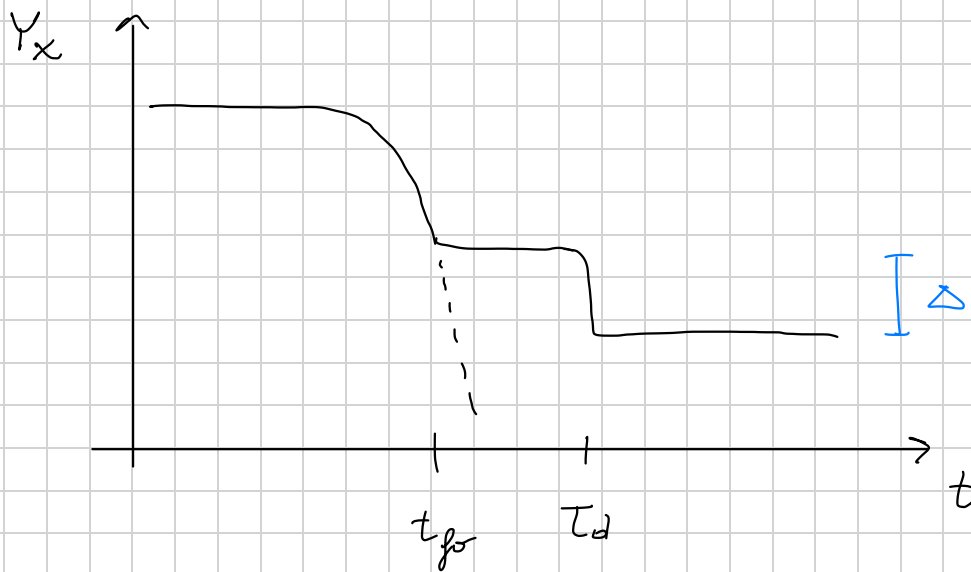
Suppose we have a decoupled specie X (DM? SM ν ? Exotic ν ? GW?)

No number changing processes: $n_X a^3 = \text{const}$

$Y_X = \frac{n_X}{s}$ constant before and after decay, changes at decay

$$Y_0 = Y_{\tau_d^+} = \frac{n_X(\tau_d)}{s(\tau_d^+)} = \frac{n_X(\tau_d)}{\Delta s(\tau_d^-)} = \frac{1}{\Delta} Y_{\tau_d^-}$$

\Rightarrow The density of any decoupled particles gets diluted by the decay of ~~some~~ heavy particles into thermal radiation

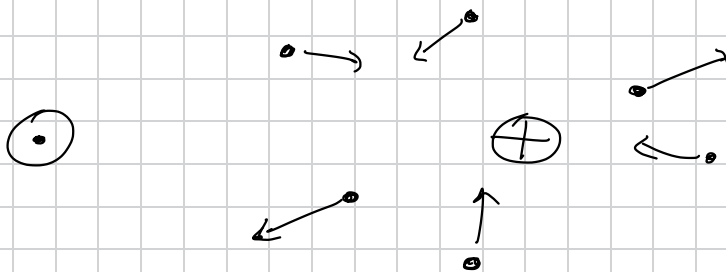


WIMP dark matter searches: Direct detection

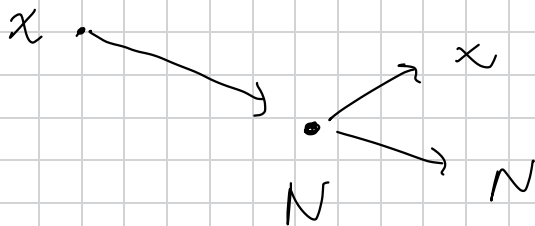
DM produced via freeze-out: it has to be in thermal eq with the SM \Rightarrow there must be sizable interactions. Can we test them?

Direct detection

Idea: Earth is constantly hit by DM particles



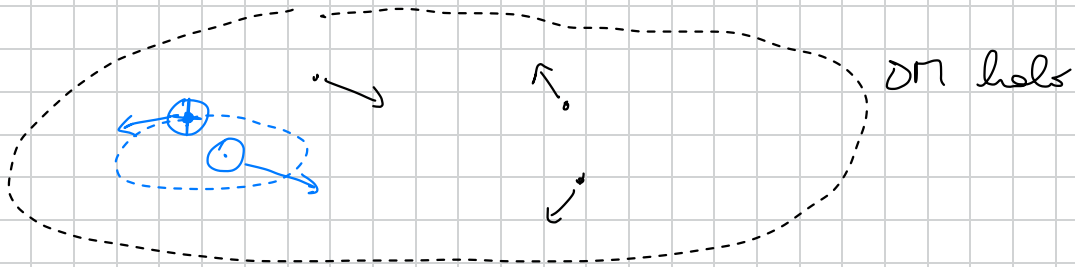
Some of them (depending on the cross section) will scatter against ~~some~~ particle (nuclei) of the stuff Earth is made of. If we take a "target" and we equip it to see any recoil of the nucleus it is made of, we can hope to detect these scattering processes and measure the cross section.



elastic scattering.

Typical numbers: $\rho_{DM} \sim 0.3 \text{ GeV cm}^{-3}$ $v \sim 220 \text{ km s}^{-1}$
 $v/c \sim 10^{-3}$

Earth is moving ($v_{\oplus} \approx 30 \text{ km s}^{-1} \sim \frac{v_{\oplus}}{10}$)



The Sun moves in the galaxy, Earth moves around the Sun

\Rightarrow Expect annual modulation of the incoming flux (and hence of the signal)

Estimate the flux

$$n_x = \frac{\rho_x^{\text{local}}}{m_x}$$

ρ_x^{local} fixed $\Rightarrow n_x$ decreases for larger m_x
 heavier x harder to detect (there are fewer around)

Typical flux: $\phi_x = n_x v_x = \frac{\rho_x^{\text{local}}}{m_x} v_x$

for $m_x = 100 \text{ GeV}$:

$$\phi_x = \frac{0.3 \text{ GeV cm}^{-3} \cdot 220 \text{ km s}^{-1}}{100 \text{ GeV}} \approx 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

For comparison: the flux of solar neutrinos is $\sim 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$

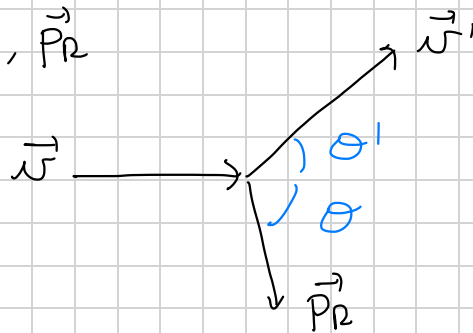
Background: - cosmic rays (and their secondary products)
 - natural radioactivity

Setup: specify the **target** (mass and spin of the nucleus)
 and the **detection method** (electrons emitted from ionization,
 heat and phonons from vibrations (\rightarrow temperature increase),
 light emitted by scintillating crystals ...)

Kinematics

$$X N \rightarrow X N$$

In the plane of \vec{v}' , \vec{p}_R



$$\begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} m_x v^2 = \frac{1}{2} m_x v'^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_N v_R^2 \\ m_x \vec{v} = m_x \vec{v}' + m_N \vec{p}_R \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} v'^2 = v^2 - \frac{m_N}{m_x} v_R^2 & (1) \\ \vec{v}' = \vec{v} - \frac{m_N}{m_x} \vec{p}_R & (2) \end{cases}$$

$$(2) \Rightarrow v'^2 = v^2 + \left(\frac{m_N}{m_x}\right)^2 v_R^2 - 2v v_R \frac{m_N}{m_x} \cos \theta \quad (3)$$

$$(1)(3) \Rightarrow \cancel{v^2} - \frac{m_N}{m_x} v_R^2 = \cancel{v^2} + \left(\frac{m_N}{m_x}\right)^2 v_R^2 - 2v v_R \frac{m_N}{m_x} \cos \theta$$

$$v_R \left(\frac{m_N}{m_x} + 1\right) = 2v \cos \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow v_R = 2 \frac{m_x}{m_N + m_x} v \cos \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow E_R = \frac{1}{2} m_N v_R^2 = 2 \frac{\mu^2}{m_N} v^2 \cos^2 \theta$$

where $\mu = \frac{m_x m_N}{m_x + m_N}$

Energy threshold

Maximal velocity: $E_{\max} = 2 \frac{\mu^2}{m_N} v^2$

This needs to surpass some detector thresholds:

$$E_{\max} > E_{\text{th}} \Rightarrow v > v_{\text{th}} = \sqrt{\frac{m_N E_{\text{th}}}{2\mu^2}}$$

$$\mu \approx \begin{cases} m_N & m_x \gg m_N \\ m_x & m_x \ll m_N \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{\text{th}} = \begin{cases} \frac{E_{\text{th}}}{2m_N} & m_x \gg m_N \\ \frac{m_N E_{\text{th}}}{2m_x^2} & m_x \ll m_N \end{cases}$$

\Rightarrow detection becomes problematic for $m_x \ll m_N$

Typical recoil energy: $m_x \sim 100 \text{ GeV}$, $(m_N \sim 100 \text{ GeV})$ (Xenon atoms)
 $v \sim 10^{-3}$ 54 Xe

$$E_{\max} \sim \frac{2 (100 \text{ GeV})^2 10^{-6}}{100 \text{ GeV}} \approx 200 \text{ keV}$$

Minimal recoil energy in an experiment: $\sim 0 \text{ (keV)}$

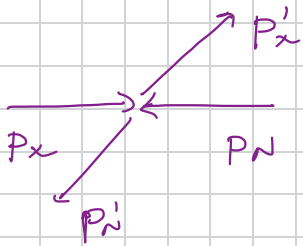
\rightarrow corresponds to a mass ($m_x \ll m_N \Rightarrow \mu \approx m_x$)

$$m_x \approx \left(\frac{m_N E_{\text{th}}}{v^2} \right)^{1/2} \approx \frac{(100 \text{ GeV} \cdot 1 \text{ keV})^{1/2}}{10^{-3}} \approx 10 \text{ GeV}$$

Center of mass kinematics

You can work out the kinematics and get $E_R = \frac{\mu^2 v_{rel}^2}{m_N} (1 - \cos \theta_*)$

Solution!



$$p_x = p'_N \quad p_N = p'_x$$

$$\frac{p_N^2}{2m_N} + \frac{p_x^2}{2m_x} = \frac{p'_N{}^2}{2m_N} + \frac{p'_x{}^2}{2m_x}$$

$$\Rightarrow p_x = p_N = p'_x = p'_N$$

$$p_N = m_N v_N = m_x v_x \Rightarrow v_{rel} = v_x + v_N = p_N \left(\frac{1}{m_N} + \frac{1}{m_x} \right) = \frac{p_N}{\mu}$$

$$\Rightarrow p = \mu v_{rel}$$

define $\vec{q} = \vec{p}' - \vec{p} \Rightarrow q^2 = 2\mu^2 v_{rel}^2 (1 + \cos \theta_*)$

q^2 is a Lorentz invariant! $Q = P'_x - P_x \Rightarrow Q^2 = -q^2$

$$P_x = \begin{pmatrix} E_p \\ \vec{p} \end{pmatrix} \quad P'_x = \begin{pmatrix} E'_p \\ \vec{p}' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} E_p \\ \vec{p}' \end{pmatrix} \quad Q = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vec{p}' - \vec{p} \end{pmatrix}$$

In the lab frame instead:

$$P'_x - P_x = P_N - P'_N = \begin{pmatrix} m_N \\ \vec{0} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{m_N^2 + p_R^2} \\ \vec{p}_R \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow Q^2 = (\sqrt{m_N^2 + p_R^2} - m_N)^2 - p_R^2 = m_N^2 + p_R^2 - p_R^2 + m_N^2 - 2m_N \sqrt{m_N^2 + p_R^2}$$

$$= 2m_N^2 - 2m_N^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{p_R^2}{m_N^2} \right) = -p_R^2$$

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{p}_R| = |\vec{q}| \quad \text{and} \quad E_R = \frac{q^2}{2m_N} = \frac{\mu^2 v_{rel}^2}{m_N} (1 - \cos \theta_*)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dE_R} = \frac{m_N}{\mu^2 v_{rel}^2} \frac{d}{d \cos \theta_*}$$

Scattering rate

Event rate: $\Gamma \equiv \frac{dN_T}{dV dt} \equiv n_X n_N \underbrace{v}_{v_{rel}} \sigma$

in general, v_{rel} , but we can write it as v_{rel} because the two are equal in frames in which $v_X \parallel v_N$

Γ is Lorentz invariant

Differential rate:

$$\frac{d^2 \Gamma}{dE_R d\varphi} = \frac{m_N}{\mu^2 v_{rel}^2} \frac{d^2 \Gamma}{d\varphi d\cos\Theta_*} = \frac{m_N}{\mu^2 v_{rel}^2} n_N n_X v_{rel} \underbrace{\frac{d^2 \sigma}{d\varphi d\cos\Theta_*}}_{\equiv \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega_X} \text{ or } \sigma(\varphi, \Theta_*)}$$

For NR relativistic scattering

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega_X} = \frac{1}{(m_X + m_N)^2} \frac{|\mathcal{M}|^2}{64\pi^2}$$

\mathcal{M} depends on how does DM interact with the nucleus.

NB: here we fixed a velocity, but DM actually has a distribution.

On Earth, this is not the simple Maxwellian distribution, because 1) \oplus have to orbit it to the Earth frame (\oplus is moving around \odot which moves around the galaxy) and 2) there is an escape velocity.

$$\int_0^{v_{esc}} f_X(v_{rel}) dv_{rel} = 1$$

and $\frac{d\Gamma}{dE_R d\varphi} = \frac{m_N m_T \underbrace{m_X}_{\frac{\rho_X}{m_X}}}{\mu^2 v_{rel}} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega_X dv}$

and $\rho_X = 0.3 \text{ GeV cm}^{-3}$ is purely astro

Non-relativistic operators

How does $\Delta\Gamma$ interact w/ nuclei?

Two observations:

$$1) \quad q \sim \mu v_{\text{rel}} \sim 10^{-3} \frac{m_N m_x}{m_p + m_n} \sim 10^{-3} 100 \text{ GeV} \sim 100 \text{ MeV}$$

$$\Delta x \sim 10^{-2} \text{ MeV}^{-1} \quad \text{where } \hbar = 1 = 197.3 \text{ MeV fm} \\ \sim 2 \text{ fm} \quad \geq \text{proton size}$$

$\Rightarrow X$ doesn't see quarks and gluons, it sees protons and neutrons!

2) $v \ll 1$ thus the scattering is non-relativistic \Rightarrow use the tools of non-relativistic QM rather than QFT.

Procedure:

1) consider an operator mediating the X -quarks (gluons) interaction, eg

$$O_S^q = \bar{X} \gamma^\mu X \bar{q} \gamma_\mu q$$

$$O_8^q = \bar{X} \gamma^\mu \gamma_5 X \bar{q} \gamma_\mu \gamma_5 q$$

2) Derive what operators does this induce at the nuclear level

$$O_S^q \rightarrow O_S^N = \bar{X} \gamma_\mu X \bar{N} \gamma^\mu N$$

$$O_8^q \rightarrow O_8^N = \bar{X} \gamma^\mu \gamma_5 X \bar{N} \gamma_\mu \gamma_5 N$$

(with an appropriate coefficients)

3) Consider the non-relativistic limit. Limits of fermion bilinears are of the form

$$u^s(p) = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{p^0 \sigma_r} \zeta^s \\ \sqrt{p^r \sigma_r} \zeta^s \end{pmatrix} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{4m}} \begin{pmatrix} (2m - \vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) \zeta^s \\ (2m + \vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) \zeta^s \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\bar{u}(p') \gamma^\mu u(p) \approx \begin{pmatrix} 2m \\ \vec{p} + 2i \vec{q} \times \vec{\sigma} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\bar{u}(p') \gamma^\mu \gamma_5 u(p) \approx \begin{pmatrix} 2 \vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \\ 4m \vec{\sigma} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{P} = \vec{p}' + \vec{p} \quad \vec{q} = \vec{p}' - \vec{p} \quad \vec{\sigma} = \zeta'^{\dagger} \frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2} \zeta$$

We obtain

$$\mathcal{O}_5^N \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_1^{NR} = \mathbb{1} \quad \text{"SI: spin-independent"}$$

$$\mathcal{O}_8^N \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_4^{NR} = \vec{\sigma}_N \cdot \vec{\sigma}_N \quad \text{"SD: spin-dependent"}$$

Where the non-rel operators are "used" with non-rel fields containing only creation or annihilation ops

$$\mathcal{L}_{int} = \sum_{N=mp} \sum_i c_i^N \mathcal{O}_i \chi^+ \chi^- N^+ N^-$$

$$N^-(x) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2m_N}} e^{-ik \cdot y} a_k^+ \quad N^+(x) = (N^-(x))^\dagger$$

4) Compute the χ -nucleus cross section. SI scattering wins a factor $A^2 \sim \mathcal{O}(10^4)$ because the matrix elements with individual nuclei add up coherently.

Example: Si

$$M_{\chi N}^{SI} = F(E_R) [Z f_p + (A-Z) f_n]$$

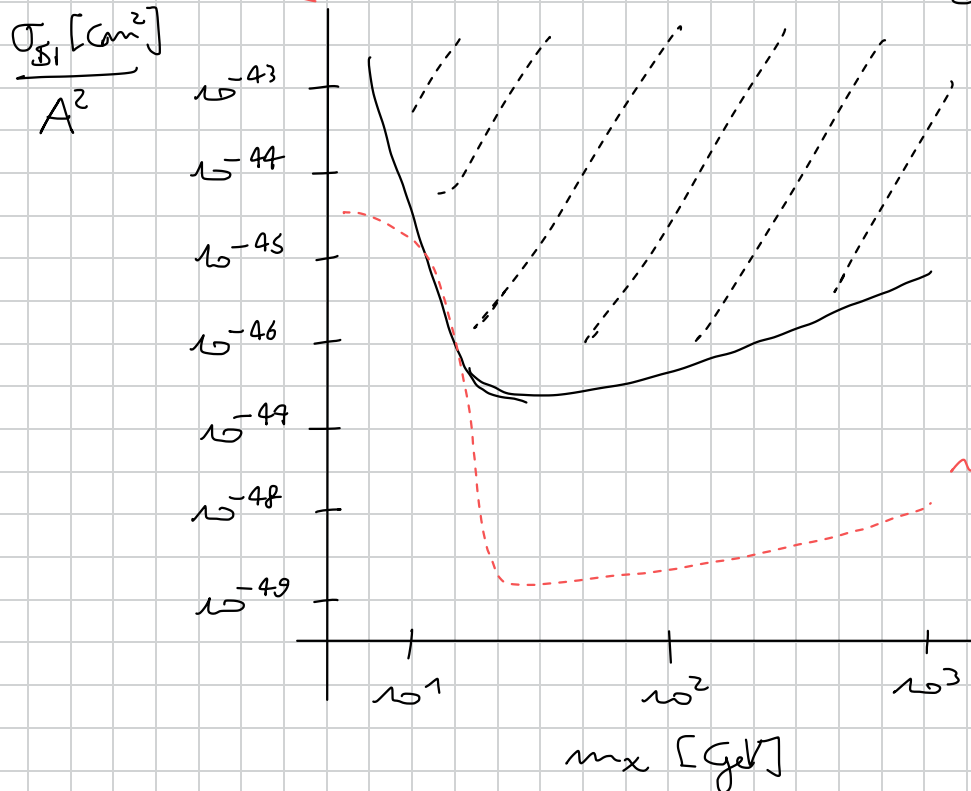
↳ "nuclear form factor" descends from matching the quark operator onto the nucleus

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega_{\chi}} = \frac{\sigma}{4\pi} = \frac{\sigma(E_R=0)}{4\pi} F(E_R)^2$$

$$\frac{d\Gamma}{dE_R} = \underbrace{(N_{\chi} m_N)}_{\text{target}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{\sigma_{\chi N}^{SI}(E_R=0)}{\mu^2 m_{\chi}} \right)}_{\text{microscopic DM model}} F(E_R)^2 \underbrace{\left(\rho_{\chi} \int_{v_{min}(E_R)}^{v_{max}} \frac{f_{\chi}(v_{rel})}{2v_{rel}} dv_{rel} \right)}_{\text{astrophysics}}$$

nuclear physics: for γ, η to nucleus

how to go below GeV? scattering off electrons, collective scatterings.



Xenon 1T
(1t of Xenon x 1 yr)

neutrino floor: at this sensitivity the experiment starts to see ν s from the sun (very rare at these energies)
→ a nightmare background
need directional detection?

Low mass limit: - below ~ 10 GeV \Rightarrow scattering ~ 1 electron

- below ~ 10 eV: $q \sim 10$ eV $\Rightarrow \Delta\lambda \sim \text{\AA}$

\Rightarrow DM interacts with many nuclei at the same time, Excite collective modes of the target

Indirect detection

General idea

Thermal DM production \Rightarrow DM particles can annihilate into pairs of SM ones.

Thermal freeze-out benchmark: $\langle \sigma v_{rel} \rangle \approx 3 \times 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$

Is this a big number? Number of annihilations in our solar system, since when the galaxy exists:

$$\begin{aligned} N_{ann}^{local} &\sim (n_x^{loc})^2 \langle \sigma v \rangle V T \sim \left(\frac{\rho_x^{loc}}{m_x} \right)^2 \langle \sigma v \rangle R_{solar}^3 T \\ &\sim \left(\frac{0.3 \text{ GeV cm}^{-3}}{100 \text{ GeV}} \right)^2 3 \times 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1} (10^5 \text{ AU})^3 (5 \times 10^9 \text{ yr}) \\ &\sim 10^{41} \end{aligned}$$

We need to point our telescope at regions with high DM density

- galactic centre: large ρ , but large / complicated bkg for stellar processes
- dwarf-galaxies: most precise signal because DM-dominated

Final states

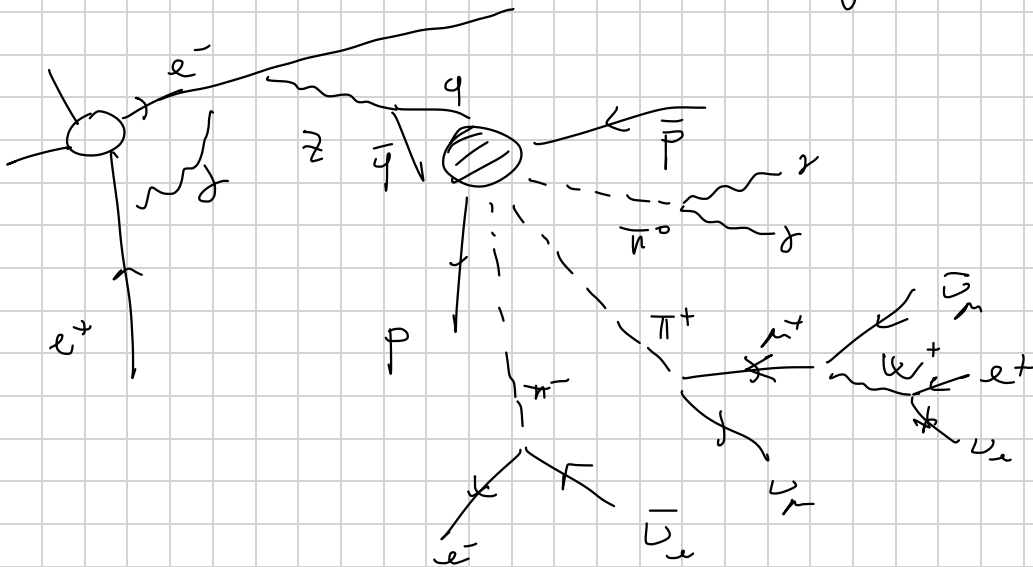
main channel: pair annihilation

$$X X \rightarrow q \bar{q}, e^+ e^-, \mu^+ \mu^-, \tau^+ \tau^-, \nu \nu, \gamma \gamma, W^+ W^-, Z Z, Z h, h h$$

- quarks hadronize $\rightarrow p, n, \pi's, \dots$
- unstable particles decay
- EW corrections are important: emission of a soft/collinear W boson is enhanced by $\log \frac{m_X}{m_W}$, $\log \log \frac{m_X}{m_W}$ and can alter the spectrum.



\Rightarrow the emitted W/Z induces production of other particles



Propagation

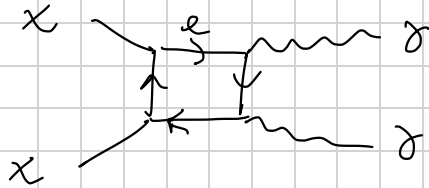
neutral stuff (δ and ν): travel undisturbed on a straight line

charged stuff (e^\pm, p^\pm): scattered and braked by galactic fields
in the galaxy: need some propagation model
(incl. uncertainties)

1D w/ photos

Two channels:

$X X \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$ via a box diagram

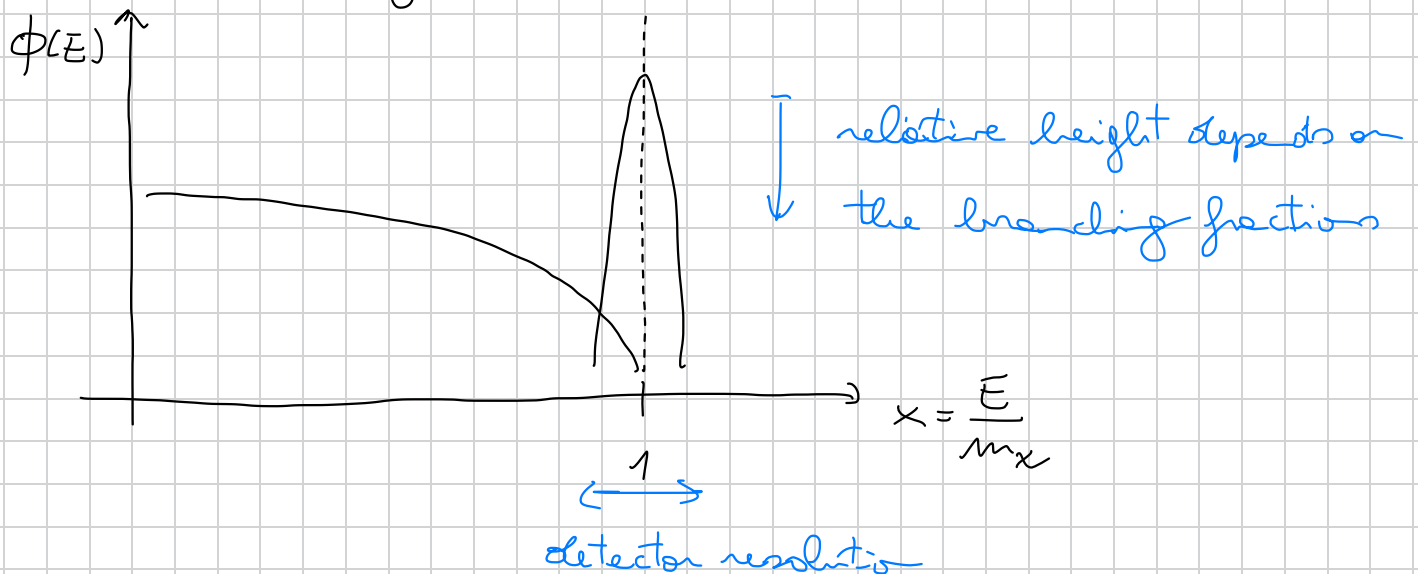


$$s = (p_1 + p_2)^2 \approx 4m_X^2 \quad (v \ll 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow E_\gamma = m_X \Rightarrow \text{X-ray line}$$

Final state radiation / decay: continuous spectrum

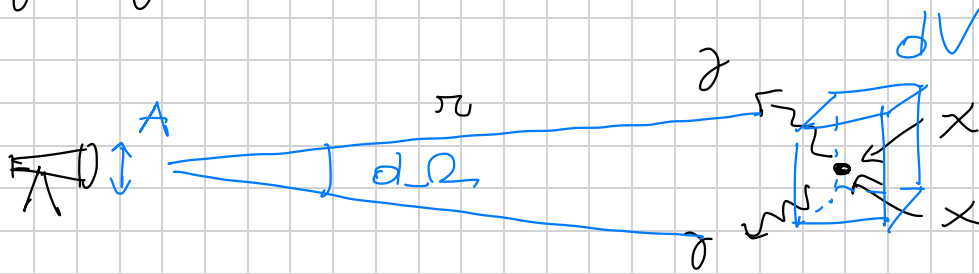
We expect something like



$XX \rightarrow W^+W^-$ is the same as $e^+e^- \rightarrow W^+W^-$, as long as PSR is conserved. \Rightarrow we can use all the machinery developed for collider experiments (hadronization, radiative corrections, etc)

Photo flux

Consider photons produced at one particular location in the galaxy



$$\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE dV} = \frac{1}{4\pi r^2} \frac{dn_\gamma(m_x)}{dE_\gamma} \frac{1}{2} m_x^2 \langle \sigma v \rangle A \Delta t$$

avoid double counting in the number of distinct DP pairs

spectrum of produced photons

Integrate over the volume $r \ll r_1$ $dV = r^2 dr d\Omega$

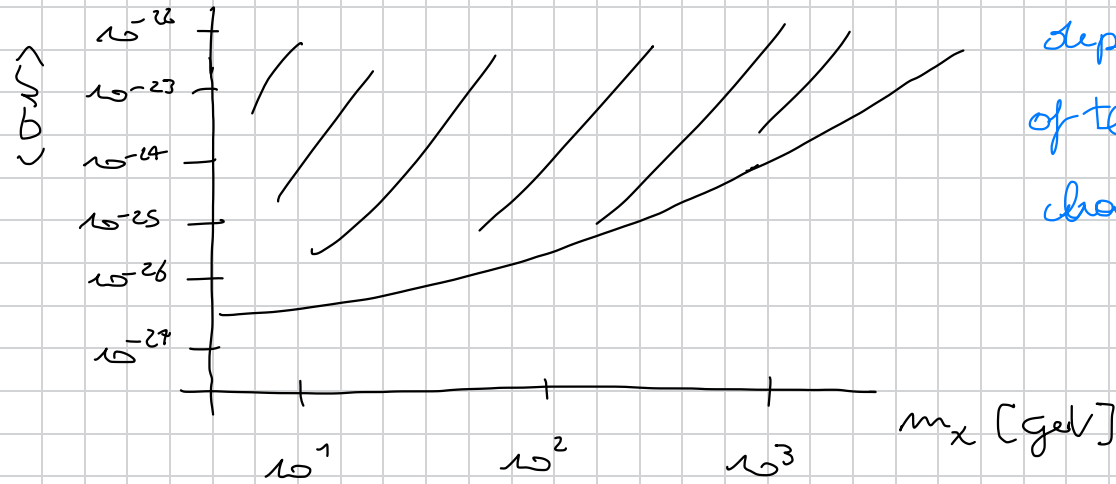
$$\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma d\Omega} = \underbrace{(A \Delta t)}_{\text{detector}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{\langle \sigma v_{\text{rel}} \rangle}{m_x^2} \right)}_{\text{particle physics}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{dn_\gamma(m_x)}{dE_\gamma} \right)}_{\text{SM}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{8\pi} \int \rho_x^2 dr \right)}_{\text{astrophysics}} \equiv J \quad \text{"J-factor"}$$

Main uncertainty: J -factor (up to 2 orders of magnitude)

We do not know whether the distribution is peaked or cored

Results

Typical bound looks like



depends on the assumption of the annihilation channel

Decaying DM

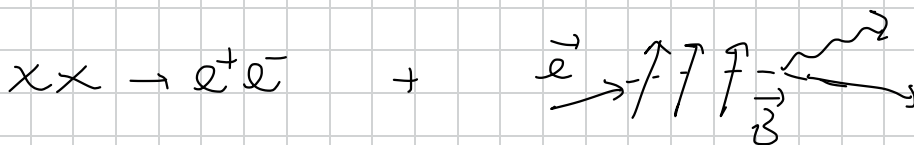
$\chi \rightarrow \text{SM stuff}$ w/ $\Gamma_\chi > \tau_\chi$

Same as above, w/ $m_\chi^2 \langle \sigma v \rangle$ replaced by $m_\chi \Gamma_\chi$ w/ $\Gamma_\chi = \tau_\chi^{-1}$

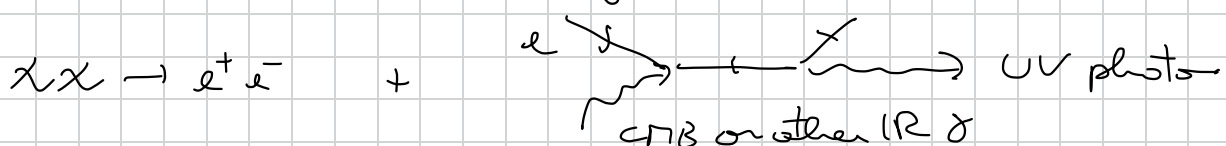
$$\Rightarrow J_{\text{decay}} = \frac{1}{8\pi} \int dl p_\chi \Rightarrow \text{less uncertainty}$$

Other photo sources (DM related)

- synchrotron emission in the galactic magnetic field \vec{B}



- Inverse Compton scattering



Again, for $\nu \rightarrow 0$, Sommerfeld enhancement & bound state formation can be very important

Quint exam [2109.02696]

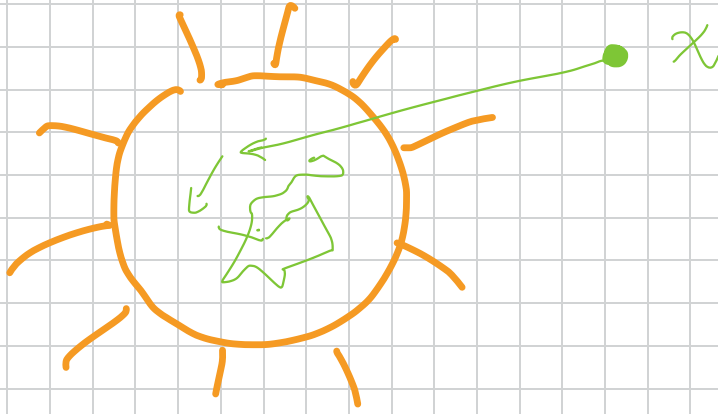
Background estimation + statistics is a nasty business

If any signal is seen, 2 questions:

- 1) is it really there? Or is it just some statistical fluctuation? Or maybe there is just ν excess?
- 2) if an excess is found, is it due to DM? Or do I need to remodel my bkg?

- cosmic rays positrons, antiprotons, at high energy
- anti- ^4He
- 3.5 keV line in galaxy clusters (decay of 7 keV sterile neutrinos)
- 21 cm absorption
- 1-3 GeV γ -ray excess around the galactic centre,

Neutrinos from the Sun



Scatterings slow down X that is trapped in the Sun

$$\Gamma_{\text{capt}} = \Gamma_{\text{capture}} \propto \langle \sigma v \rangle |_{\text{scattering}}$$

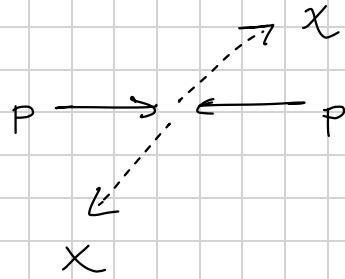
|

$$XX \rightarrow UV$$

but depends on $\sigma v |_{\text{scatt}}$ (strong obs for SD)

Collider searches

Produce DM at colliders. χ leave the detector without being detected



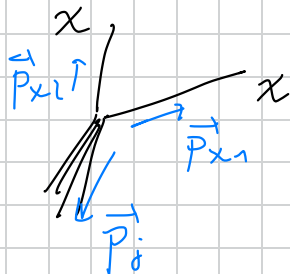
Such an event is useless because ∇ cannot detect it. Need to have some recoiling SM particle.

Ex $q\bar{q} \rightarrow \chi\chi g \rightsquigarrow$ mono-jet + missing energy



in general "mono- χ + MET" searches
($\chi = \text{jet}, \gamma, Z, h, \dots$)

MET = missing $E_T = -\sum \vec{p}_T$ momentum in the transverse plane is imbalanced

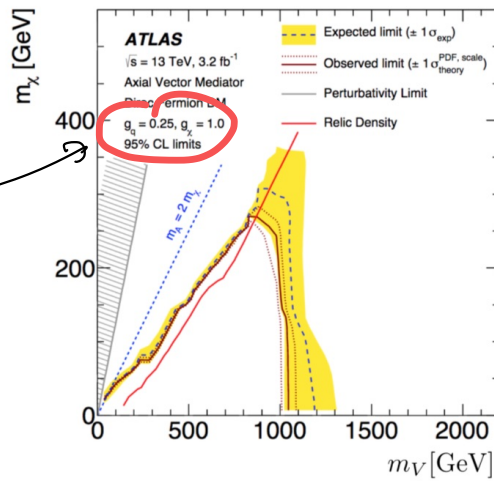


$$\vec{p}_j + \vec{p}_{\chi 1} + \vec{p}_{\chi 2} = 0 \quad \text{but } \nabla \text{ don't see } \vec{p}_{\chi 3}$$

At a proto collider the longitudinal momentum is not 0

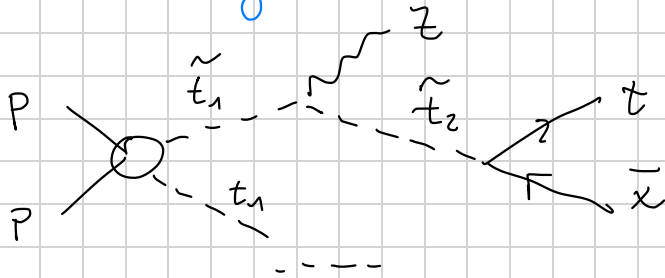
Typical result:

couplings
are fixed



Other search channels:

• cascade decays

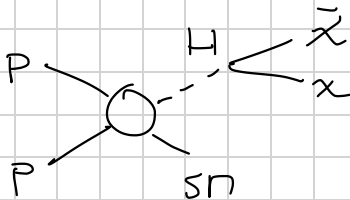


t quark is the best
constrained

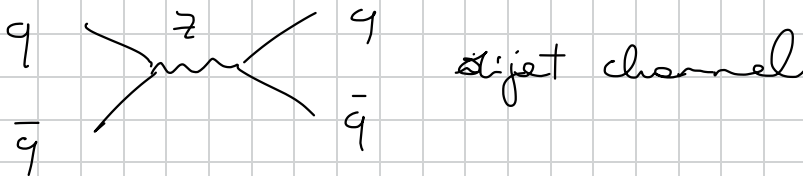
top partners such as \tilde{t}
are well motivated (SUSY)

and less constrained

• $H \rightarrow$ invisible



• Mediator searches (this is what LHC does best)



$$m_{Z1} \gtrsim 2 - 2.5 \text{ TeV} \quad \text{for } g \approx 0.1$$

Early Universe bounds

DM annihilation can be dangerous if they deposit too much energy into the plasma around the time of nucleosynthesis or CMB.

Energy injected in the plasma after freeze-out:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dE}{dV dt} &\leq m_x \dot{n}_x \langle \sigma v \rangle & n_x &= \left(\frac{a(t)}{a}\right)^3 n_x^f = \left(\frac{T}{T_f}\right)^3 n_x^f \\ &= m_x n_x \left(\frac{T}{T_f}\right)^3 \langle \sigma v \rangle & & \\ &= m_x n_x \left(\frac{T}{T_f}\right)^3 H_f & & \\ &= \rho_x \left(\frac{T}{T_f}\right)^3 H_f & & \end{aligned}$$

In one Hubble time, for each degree of freedom I inject an energy

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{E}{N_{\text{dof}}} &= \left(\rho_x \left(\frac{T}{T_f}\right)^3 H_f \right) \frac{a^3}{n_{\text{dof}} a^3} H^{-1} & H a &\propto T^{-2} \\ &= \frac{\rho_x}{\rho_{\text{rel}} \approx 1 \text{ GeV}} \left(\frac{T}{T_f}\right) & m_x &\approx 100 \text{ GeV} \quad x_f \approx 25 \quad T_f \approx 4 \text{ GeV} \\ &\approx 5 \text{ GeV} \frac{T}{4 \text{ GeV}} \approx T & & \end{aligned}$$

BBN: $T \sim \text{MeV} \Rightarrow \frac{E}{N_{\text{dof}}} \approx \text{MeV} \approx$ binding energy of nuclei
 \Rightarrow dangerous!

CMB: $T \sim \text{eV} \Rightarrow \frac{E}{N_{\text{dof}}} \approx \text{eV} \lesssim$ binding energy of $\text{H} \alpha$
 \Rightarrow dangerous

For the actual bound I have to go back to the expression for the energy deposit and evolve it in time over the duration of BBN or CMB:

$$\frac{d\bar{E}}{dV dt} = n_{\nu} m_{\nu}^2 \langle \sigma v \rangle = \frac{\rho_{\nu}^2}{m_{\nu}} \langle \sigma v \rangle = (1+z)^6 \rho_{\nu,0}^2 \frac{\langle \sigma v \rangle}{m_{\nu}}$$

Strongest bound for CMB: $\langle \sigma v \rangle < 3 \times 10^{-27} \frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{s}} \left(\frac{m_{\nu}}{1 \text{ GeV}} \right)$

$\Rightarrow m_{\nu} \gtrsim 10 \text{ GeV}$ for thermal production

(unless the dominant channel is into neutrinos, that decouple around BBN (way before CMB))

Axioms

CP violation in QCD

CP violation & the quark mass

Consider QCD around 1 GeV: only 3 quarks, but decoupled

$$L_{\text{QCD}} = -\frac{1}{4} G_{\mu\nu} G^{\mu\nu} + \bar{q} i \not{D} q - (\bar{q} m_q q + \text{h.c.})$$

Notation: $q = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \\ s \end{pmatrix}$ (all Dirac fermions)

Strong interactions do not mix flavours $\Rightarrow m_q$ is diagonal
but it can be complex

Some thoughts on fermion mass terms:

If I use a Dirac mass, I'm automatically writing a CP invariant Lagrangian

USE DIRAC
VECTORS
HERE

$$\bar{u} m_q u = u_R^\dagger m_u u_L + u_L^\dagger m_u u_R$$

$$(\bar{u} m_q u)^\dagger = u_L^\dagger m_u^* u_R + u_R^\dagger m_u^* u_L$$

$$\bar{u} m_q u + \text{h.c.} = (2 \text{Re } m_u) (u_R^\dagger u_L + u_L^\dagger u_R) \quad \text{CP invariant}$$

Instead, I can write the mass term as $\bar{u}_R m_u u_L + \text{h.c.}$
and allow m_u to have a phase at this level:

$$(u_R^\dagger m_u e^{i\theta_u} u_L)^\dagger = u_L^\dagger m_u e^{-i\theta_u} u_R$$

\Rightarrow mass term:

$$\begin{aligned} & m_u u_R^\dagger u_L (\cos\theta + i \sin\theta) + m_u u_L^\dagger u_R (\cos\theta - i \sin\theta) \\ &= m_u \cos\theta (u_R^\dagger u_L + u_L^\dagger u_R) + \underbrace{i m_u \sin\theta (u_R^\dagger u_L - u_L^\dagger u_R)}_{\text{CP-odd}} \end{aligned}$$

CP violation in the QCD gluonic Lagrangian

I can add a term $\mathcal{L}_{QCD} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{QCD} + \Delta\mathcal{L}_{QCD}$

$$\Delta\mathcal{L}_{QCD} = \Theta \frac{g_s^2}{32\pi} G_{\mu\nu}^a \tilde{G}^{a\mu\nu}$$

$$\text{w/ } \tilde{G}_{\mu\nu}^a = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} G^{a,\rho\sigma}$$

$$G\tilde{G} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} (\partial_\mu G_\nu^a - \partial_\nu G_\mu^a + g_s f^{abc} G_\mu^b G_\nu^c)$$

$$(f^{abc} = -\frac{1}{4} i \text{tr}(T_a [T_b, T_c]))$$

$$\text{CP } G\tilde{G} \rightarrow -G\tilde{G}$$

$$G\tilde{G} \sim \vec{E} \cdot \vec{B}$$

\vec{E} is a vector

\vec{B} is an axial vector (or pseudo-vector)

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} \text{CP: } A_0^a \rightarrow -A_0^a(t, \vec{x}) \\ \vec{A}^a(t, \vec{x}) \rightarrow \vec{A}^a(t, -\vec{x}) \\ \partial_0 \rightarrow \partial_0, \quad \vec{\nabla} \rightarrow -\vec{\nabla} \end{array} \right)$$

Chiral rotations

Interestingly, the two are connected

In order to get rid of the phase of the quark masses, I can perform a chiral rotation

$$\psi_L \rightarrow e^{i\alpha_L \theta_L} \psi_L \quad \psi_R \rightarrow e^{i\alpha_R \theta_R} \psi_R$$

$$\text{or, in a simple notation, } \psi \rightarrow e^{i\theta_V} e^{i\theta_A \gamma_5} \psi$$

$$\text{w/ } \theta_V = \frac{\theta_L + \theta_R}{2} \quad \theta_A = \frac{\theta_R - \theta_L}{2} \quad (\gamma_5 = -i\gamma^0\gamma^1\gamma^2\gamma^3)$$

Back to the Lagrangian

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= \bar{q} i \not{D} q - \sum_j (m_j e^{i\theta_j} \bar{q}_{jR} q_{jL} + \text{h.c.}) = \\ &= \bar{q} i \not{D} q - \sum_j (m_j \cos \theta_j \bar{q}_j q_j - m_j \sin \theta_j \bar{q}_j i \gamma_5 q_j) \end{aligned}$$

The fermions under chiral rotations:

$$V: \bar{\chi} \chi \rightarrow \bar{\chi} e^{-i\alpha_V} e^{i\alpha_V} \chi = \bar{\chi} \chi$$

$$\bar{\chi} i \gamma_5 \chi \rightarrow \bar{\chi} e^{-i\alpha_V} i \gamma_5 e^{i\alpha_V} \chi = \bar{\chi} i \gamma_5 \chi$$

$$A: \bar{\chi} \chi \rightarrow \bar{\chi} e^{i\alpha_A \gamma_5} e^{i\alpha_A \gamma_5} \chi = \cos 2\alpha_A \bar{\chi} \chi + i \sin 2\alpha_A \bar{\chi} i \gamma_5 \chi$$

$$\bar{\chi} i \gamma_5 \chi \rightarrow \bar{\chi} e^{i\alpha_A \gamma_5} i \gamma_5 e^{i\alpha_A \gamma_5} \chi = \cos 2\alpha_A \bar{\chi} i \gamma_5 \chi - i \sin 2\alpha_A \bar{\chi} \chi$$

$$\left(e^{2i\alpha_A \gamma_5} = \cos 2\alpha_A + i \gamma_5 \sin 2\alpha_A \right)$$

\Rightarrow eliminate the imaginary piece upon choosing

$$\tan 2\alpha_A = \tan \theta_A$$

$$\begin{aligned} \leadsto \mathcal{L} &= \bar{q}' i \not{D} q' - \bar{q}'_R m_q q'_L = \\ &= \bar{q}' i \not{D} q' - \bar{q}' m_q q \end{aligned}$$

Another rotation:

- vector rotation: it's a symmetry of the theory also at the quantum level, for $m=0$ or $m \neq 0$
- axial rotation: at the classical level it's a symmetry if $m_q=0$. classical level \equiv apply the transformation to the Lagrangian only

Noether theorem:

$$\langle \partial_\mu \hat{j}_\nu^\mu \rangle = 0 \quad \text{w/} \quad \hat{j}_\nu^\mu = \bar{\chi} \gamma^\mu \chi$$

$$\langle \partial_\mu \hat{j}_A^\mu \rangle = \sum_j 2m_j \bar{q}_j i \gamma^5 q_j \quad \text{w/} \quad \hat{j}_A^\mu = \bar{q}_j \gamma^\mu \gamma^5 q_j$$

At the quantum level: the symmetry is ~~obvious~~ if you are charged under $SU(3)$

An anomaly means that the measure in the path integral is not invariant

Recap: for any gauge invariant operator

$$\langle \mathcal{O}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rangle = \frac{1}{Z[0]} \int \mathcal{D}\bar{\psi} \mathcal{D}\psi \exp\left[i \int d^4x \bar{\psi} i \not{D} \psi\right] \mathcal{O}(x_1, \dots)$$

Topological term

$G\tilde{G}$ is a total derivative

$$G\tilde{G} = \partial_\mu K^\mu \quad K^\mu = \epsilon^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} A_\nu \left(F_{\rho\sigma} - \frac{4}{3} f^{abc} A_\rho^b A_\sigma^c \right)$$

\Rightarrow cannot integrate it out because \exists solutions with finite energy and that A_μ does not go to zero at infinity

Transform the fields:

$$\psi(x) \rightarrow \Delta(x) \psi(x), \quad \bar{\psi}(x) \rightarrow \Delta^\dagger(x) \bar{\psi}(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\psi} \not{D} \psi \rightarrow (\det \Delta)^{-2} \bar{\psi} \not{D} \psi$$

If $\det \Delta \neq 1$, the action is not invariant. This is equivalent to a shift in the Lagrangian:

$$L \rightarrow L + \Delta R$$

In our case ($U(1)_A$ rotation in QCD)

$$\Delta R = \Theta_A \frac{\alpha_s}{4\pi} G_{\mu\nu}^a \tilde{G}^{a\mu\nu}$$

This has the same form of the "theta-term".

Thus, I can always rewrite the Lagrangian in a form in which quark masses are real and

$$\Delta R_{\text{QCD}} = \bar{\Theta} \frac{\alpha_s}{8\pi} G_{\mu\nu}^a \tilde{G}^{a\mu\nu}$$

with $\bar{\Theta} = \Theta + \arg \det m_q = \Theta - \Theta_u - \Theta_d$

Massless quark

Important observation: if $m_u = 0$ the CP violating terms can be set to 0 $\Rightarrow \bar{\Theta}$ non physical

I can make a rotation such that $\Theta_u = \Theta - \Theta_d \Rightarrow \bar{\Theta} = 0$ but now $\bar{\Theta}$ does not reappear in a mass term!

Why is it important?

Electric dipole moment of a neutron

$$d_n \propto \Theta$$

Use a classical analogy



$$\vec{d} = \sum q \vec{r}$$

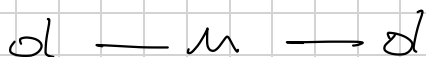
$$r_n \sim 1/m_\pi$$

$$\Rightarrow |d_n| \sim 10^{-13} \sqrt{1 - \cos\Theta} \text{ e cm}$$

- expect $|d_n| \sim 10^{-13}$


- experimentally $|d_n| < 10^{-26} \text{ e cm}$

$$\Rightarrow \Theta < 10^{-13} \quad (\text{why?})$$



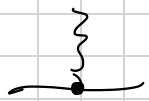
Why does \vec{d} violate CP?

Start with magnetic dipole moments of elementary particles

$B \uparrow$  $H = -\mu \vec{S} \cdot \vec{B}$ $\mu \equiv$ magnetic dipole moment

spin precession: $\omega = 2\mu B \sin \theta$

μ can be computed in QFT

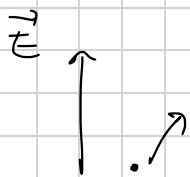
 $\mu = \frac{e\gamma}{2m}$ $\gamma = 2 \times (1.0011594723 \pm \dots)$

Electric dipole moment

For an elementary particle the only vector is \vec{S}

$\Rightarrow \vec{d} \propto \vec{E}$

\exists an external electric field it must be

$\vec{E} \uparrow$  $H = -d \vec{S} \cdot \vec{B}$

Time reversal (equivalent to CP): \vec{S} need to use time reversal because CP is not properly defined w/o antiparticles

$\vec{S} \rightarrow -\vec{S}$ (spin is like angular momentum $\vec{L} \sim \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$)
 $\vec{B} \rightarrow -\vec{B}$ (all currents that generate \vec{B} change sig)
 $\vec{E} \rightarrow \vec{E}$

Thus

$$H \stackrel{CP}{\rightarrow} -\mu \vec{S} \cdot \vec{B} + d \vec{S} \cdot \vec{E}$$

H is not invariant under $CP \Rightarrow$ in a CP invariant theory $d=0$

Something happens with parity: $\vec{S} \rightarrow \vec{S}, \vec{B} \rightarrow \vec{B}, \vec{E} \rightarrow -\vec{E}$

If an elementary particle has $d \neq 0$ this violates CP

In a P, T symmetric world, composite objects like water molecules do not have permanent edm.

Eg water: two degenerate states $\begin{array}{c} O \\ / \quad \backslash \\ H \quad H \end{array} / \begin{array}{c} H \\ / \quad \backslash \\ O \end{array}$

Parity eigenstates: $|+\rangle$ has lower energy than $|-\rangle$ ($E_+ < E_-$)

Place it in an external electric field. The potential is $\pm E$.

The new hamiltonian is

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} E_+ & 0 \\ 0 & E_- \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \Delta \\ \Delta^* & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{w/} \begin{cases} \langle \pm | \pm E | \pm \rangle = 0 \\ \langle \pm | \pm E | \mp \rangle = \Delta \end{cases}$$

Compute the new eigenvalues

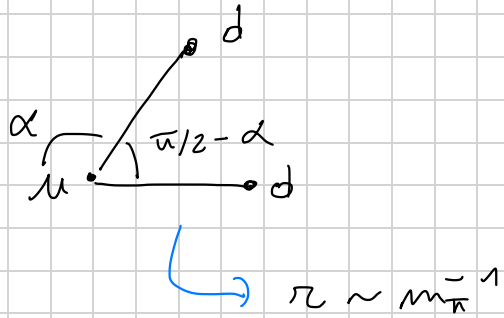
$$\begin{aligned} E_{\pm} &= \frac{1}{2} (E_+ + E_-) \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} (E_+ - E_-)^2 + |\Delta|^2} \\ &\approx \frac{1}{2} (E_+ + E_-) \pm \frac{1}{2} (E_+ - E_-) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{|\Delta|^2}{\frac{1}{4} (E_+ - E_-)^2} \right) \\ &= E_{\pm} \pm \frac{|\Delta|^2}{E_+ - E_-} \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow energy shift $\propto E^2$.

This is different for the case of permanent EDM.

Suppose now P, T are violated. Nothing would prevent a permanent edm.

Classical analogy for the neutron



$$\vec{d} = \sum q \vec{r} = \frac{2}{3} e \vec{0} - \frac{1}{3} \frac{e}{m_n} \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \cos \alpha \\ \sin \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\vec{d}| \approx \frac{e}{3m_n} \left[1 + \cos^2 \alpha - 2 \cos \alpha + \sin^2 \alpha \right]^{1/2} = \frac{2e}{3m_n} \sqrt{1 - \cos \alpha}$$

$$\approx 10^{-13} \sqrt{1 - \cos \alpha} \text{ e cm}$$

if α is somewhat smaller than 1

$$|d_n| \approx 10^{-13} \alpha$$

Compute d_n in QFT: $d_n \approx 3 \times 10^{-16} \bar{\theta} \text{ e cm}$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\theta} \lesssim 10^{-10}$$

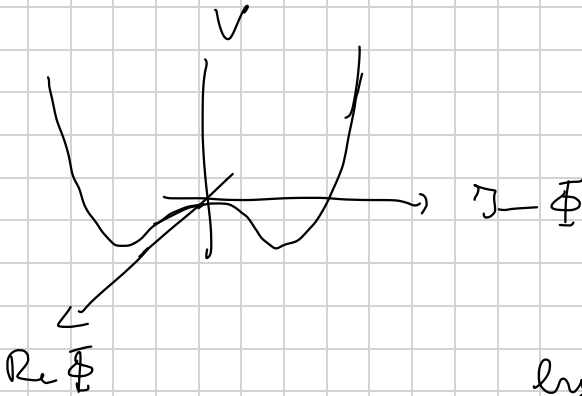
The QCD axion

The solution to this involves the introduction of a new pseudoscalar field: the axion

Take a complex scalar Φ , with a $U(1)$ sym $\Phi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \Phi$
and a pair of new coloured Dirac fermions

$$V = -m^2 \Phi^\dagger \Phi + \lambda (\Phi^\dagger \Phi)^2 + y \Phi \bar{\Psi} \Psi + \text{h.c.}$$

The negative mass term causes symmetry breaking



$$\Phi = (f_a + \pi) e^{i\alpha/f_a}$$

Get rid of the phase in the Yukawa term
by means of an axial transformation

$$\Psi \rightarrow \exp\left(i \frac{\alpha}{f_a} \gamma_5\right) \Psi$$

→ through the anomaly, a coupling is induced:

$$\left(\frac{\alpha}{f_a} + \bar{\theta}\right) \frac{g_s^2}{32\pi^2} G\tilde{G}$$

At low temperature / energy QCD confines ($q, g \rightsquigarrow \pi, \eta, \rho, \dots$)

Induced potential:

$$V(\phi) = -m_\pi^2 f_\pi^2 \sqrt{1 - \frac{4m_u m_d}{(m_u + m_d)^2} \sin^2\left(\frac{\alpha}{2f} + \frac{\bar{\theta}}{2}\right)}$$

minimization: $\frac{\theta}{f_a} = -\bar{\theta} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\theta}{f_a} + \bar{\theta}\right) G\tilde{G} = 0$

strong CP problem is solved

axion mass: $V \approx -m_\pi^2 f_\pi^2 \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{4m_u m_d}{(m_u + m_d)} \left(\frac{\theta}{f_a} - \frac{\bar{\theta}}{2}\right)^2 \right]$

define $\frac{\theta'}{f_a} = \frac{\theta}{f_a} - \frac{\bar{\theta}}{2}$

$$V \supset m_\pi^2 f_\pi^2 \frac{m_u m_d}{(m_u + m_d)^2} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\theta'}{f_a}\right)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow m_a = \left(\frac{m_u m_d}{(m_u + m_d)^2} \frac{m_\pi^2 f_\pi^2}{f_a^2} \right)^{1/2} \approx 5.7 \mu\text{eV} \frac{10^{12} \text{ GeV}}{f_a}$$

simple form

$$V = -m_a^2 f_a^2 \cos \frac{\theta}{f_a}$$

temperature dependence

Dilute Instanton Gas: $m_a^2 = \frac{m_u m_d m_\pi}{f_a^2} \frac{\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^8}{T^8}$

Interacting Instanton Liquid $m_a^2 = m_a^2(0) \left(\frac{\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}}{T}\right)^m$ $m \approx 6.8 - 7$
 $\Lambda_{\text{QCD}} \approx 200 \text{ MeV}$

Another form (1511.02867 Villadsen et al)

$$m_a^2(T) = m_a^2(0) \frac{\chi(1 \text{ GeV})}{\chi(0)} \left(\frac{\text{GeV}}{T}\right)^\alpha$$

↓
 good convergence
 only above
 $T \gtrsim 10^5 - 6 \text{ GeV}$

expected: instantons: $\chi(1)/\chi(0) \approx 10^{-7}$, $\alpha = 8$

lattice: $\chi(1)/\chi(0) \approx 10^{-2}$, $\alpha \approx 2$

axion couplings

At energies $\text{GeV} \lesssim E \lesssim 100 \text{ GeV}$

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{g_s^2}{32\pi^2} \frac{\alpha}{f_a} G\tilde{G} + \frac{g_{\text{em}}}{4} \alpha F\tilde{F} + \frac{\partial m_a}{2f_a} \sum_{\psi} c_{\psi} \bar{\psi} \gamma^5 \psi$$

where $g_{\text{em}} \sim 1/f_a^2$, and c_{ψ} are expected $\sim \mathcal{O}(1)$. The actual values are model dependent, but can be set to 0.

Below QCD confinement \exists couplings w/ nucleons and mesons.

value of f

f_a can be anything. First axion model by Weinberg et al had

$$f_a \approx M_{\text{Planck}}$$

was excluded because it would mediate a fast decay $K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ a$.

stability: axions can be DM

Exercise: compute $\Gamma_{a \rightarrow \pi\pi}$

$$\rightarrow \Gamma_{a \rightarrow \pi\pi} = \frac{g_{\pi\pi}^2 m_a^3}{64\pi}$$

$$\tau = \Gamma^{-1} \approx 1.3 \times 10^{43} \left(\frac{f}{10^{12} \text{ GeV}} \right)^5 \text{ yrs}$$

$$\sim 10^{50} \text{ s}$$

Axion quality problem and other criticisms

Some extra care is needed: we wrote a $U(1)$ symmetric Lagrangian, we treat a as a Goldstone boson (i.e. a non-linear realization of the symmetry) but the symmetry was explicitly broken from the start by the anomaly.

All the discussion about the θ -term requires special care in handling the $V \rightarrow \infty$ limit. Some recent claims that this was not done properly.

ALPs: axion-like particles

Can we be more general? What are the key ingredients?

Similar particles can emerge for different physical models

- UV QFT constructions, as Goldstone bosons of ~~some~~ spontaneous symmetry breaking
- in string theory as the result of compactification of ~~some~~ extra dimension

⇒ axion-like particles defined by:

- potential

$$V(\phi) = -m^2 f^2 \cos \frac{\phi}{f} \quad (\text{or } \Lambda^4 \cos \frac{\phi}{f}, \quad \Lambda^4 = m^2 f^2)$$

- no temperature dependence for simplicity

- couplings to SM same as for QCD axion, but w/ generic couplings

Axion Dark Matter (thermal axions)

Axions are neutral and stable. How can \bar{D} produce them as DM?

scattering w/ the plasma



Even though it's freeze-in (not freeze-out) the distribution is almost thermal \Rightarrow require $m_a \gtrsim O(10 \text{ keV})$

For QCD axion

$$10 \text{ keV} \approx \text{meV} \frac{10^{13} \text{ GeV}}{f_a} \Rightarrow f_a \leq 10^3 \text{ GeV} \quad \text{excluded}$$

but it works for ALPs

Lifetime:

$$\tau = \frac{64\pi}{g_{\text{eff}}^2 m_a^3} \approx f_a^2 \frac{64\pi}{m_a^3} \Rightarrow f_a \approx \frac{\tau m_a^3}{64\pi}$$

$$\tau \gtrsim 10^{28} \text{ s} \quad (\text{eg NuSTAR } 2207.04572)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_a \gtrsim 2.7 \times 10^{17} \text{ GeV} \left(\frac{m_a}{10 \text{ keV}} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{\tau_{\text{limit}}}{10^{28} \text{ s}} \right)^{1/2}$$

very much borderline

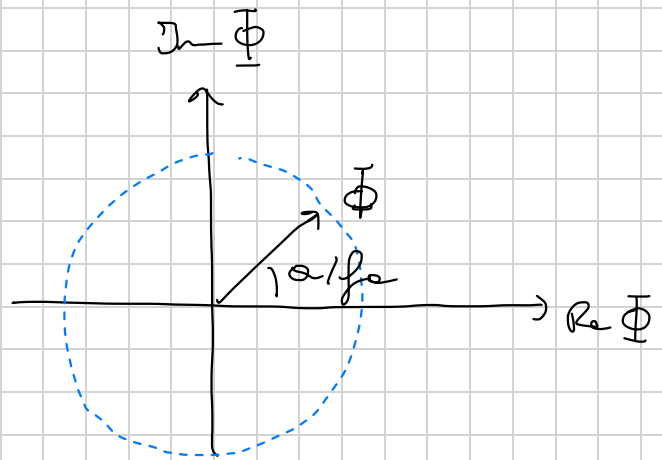
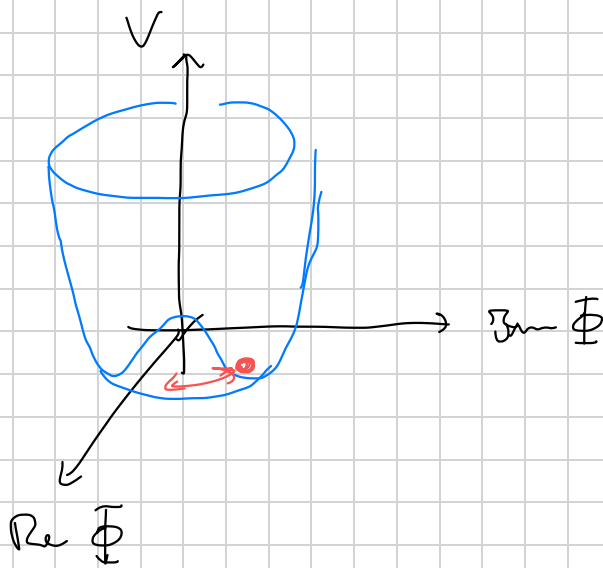
Decay of topological defects (cosmic strings)

Treat the axis as a classical field (more about that later)

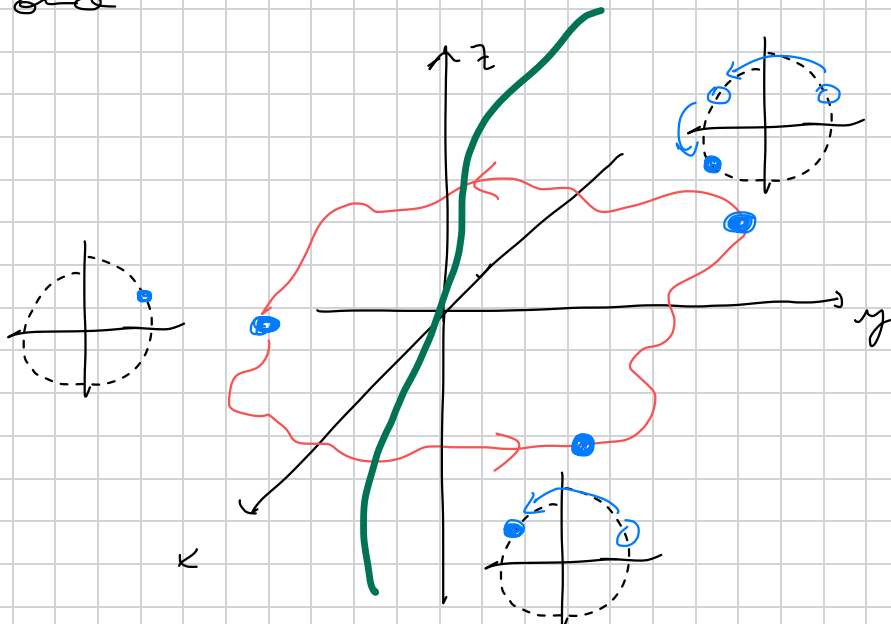
Suppose it can take many values within our visible horizons.

$$\mathcal{L} = (\partial_\mu \bar{\Phi})^\dagger \partial^\mu \Phi - \frac{\lambda}{4} (|\Phi|^2 - m^2)^2$$

$$\Phi \rightarrow (f_0 + r) e^{i\alpha/f_0}$$



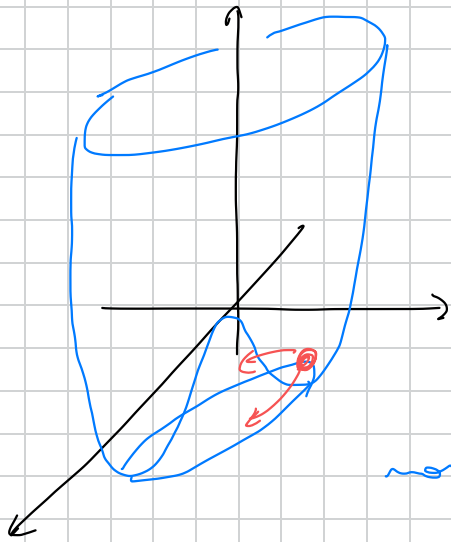
∃ special configurations in which the field winds up at least once



There exists a manifold (a line) along which

$$\Phi = 0$$

"cosmic string"



When the axio gets a potential
the strings become unstable and
decay into axio particles

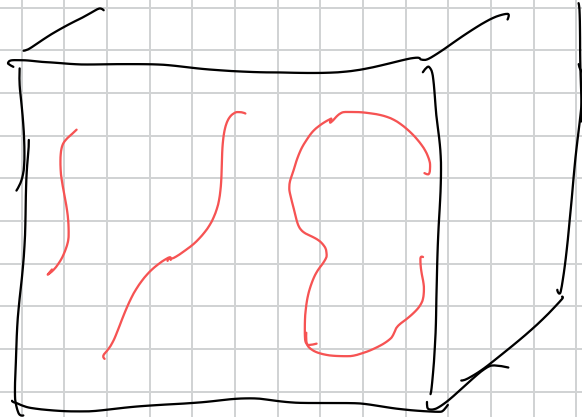
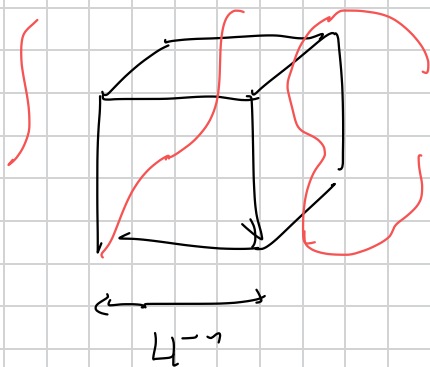
These particles are very cold: it's a
non-thermal, cold DM candidate

Abundance: depends on the abundance of strings in the Universe

Vague idea: string can intersect, cut one another, close or closed
paths which shrink and decay...



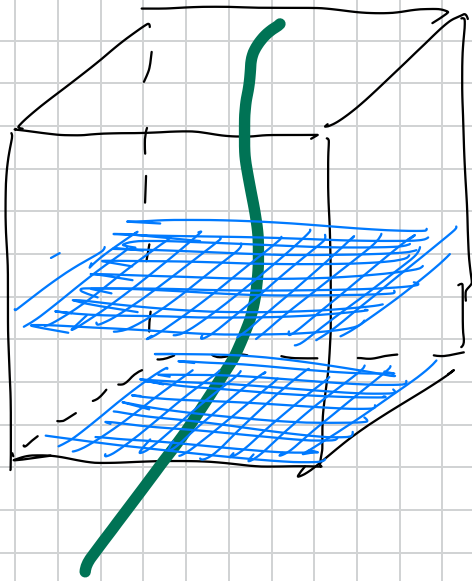
At the same time, as the horizon grows, more and more
strings enter the horizon



⇒ attractor solution: ~ 1 string of length H^{-1} per
Hubble volume at any time

Requires very difficult simulations involving two well separated scales $H \sim m_p$ and f_a (typically some 15 orders of magnitude apart)

Simulation = solve the classical eq on a discretized space time ("lattice")



The grid should ideally be \ll string width

Huge computational problem

- can I work with a small hierarchy and extrapolate?
- let parameters vary to capture the air dynamics at all time (fat string)?

Indication in the literature of a derivation for scaling solution.
String axions are the dominant source of DM?

2007.04990

The existence of defects depends on whether the initial conditions are set before or after inflation

- before: no strings
- after: strings

Axion misalignment

Axions can be treated as a classical field when the state is significantly displaced from the vacuum

Think of this fact as in electromagnetism: when $\vec{E}, \vec{B} \approx 0$ we talk of photons (quanta of quantum fields), when \vec{E}, \vec{B} are large they behave classically following Maxwell's equations

Start from the action of a minimally coupled scalar field in the expanding universe

change notation:
 ϕ axion, a scale factor

$$S = \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left(\frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi - V(\phi) \right)$$

Eom are found by vary $\phi \rightarrow \phi + \delta\phi$ and imposing $\delta S = 0$

$$S \rightarrow \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left[\frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu (\phi + \delta\phi) \partial^\mu (\phi + \delta\phi) - V(\phi + \delta\phi) \right]$$

$$\delta S = \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left[\frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \delta\phi \partial^\mu \phi + \dots - V'(\phi) \delta\phi \right]$$

by parts

$$= - \int d^4x \delta\phi \left[\partial_\mu (\sqrt{-g} \partial^\mu \phi) + \sqrt{-g} V'(\phi) \right]$$

$$= - \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \delta\phi \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}} \partial_\mu (\sqrt{-g} g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu \phi) + V'(\phi) \right]$$

$$\equiv - \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \delta\phi \left(\square \phi + V'(\phi) \right) \quad (\text{NB: } \square = \nabla_\mu g^{\mu\nu} \nabla_\nu)$$

\hookrightarrow D'Alembertian

Eq of motion: $\square\phi + V'(\phi) = 0$

In a FRW universe

$$g_{\mu\nu} = (1, -a(t)^2, -a(t)^2, -a(t)^2)$$

$$\sqrt{-g} = a(t)^3$$

$$\square\phi = \frac{1}{a^3} \left[\partial_0 (a^3 \partial_0 \phi) + \partial_i \left(a^3 \left(-\frac{1}{a^2}\right) \partial_i \phi \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{a^3} \left[a^3 3H\dot{\phi} + a^3 \ddot{\phi} - a \nabla^2 \phi \right]$$

$$= \ddot{\phi} - \frac{1}{a^2} \nabla^2 \phi + 3H\dot{\phi}$$

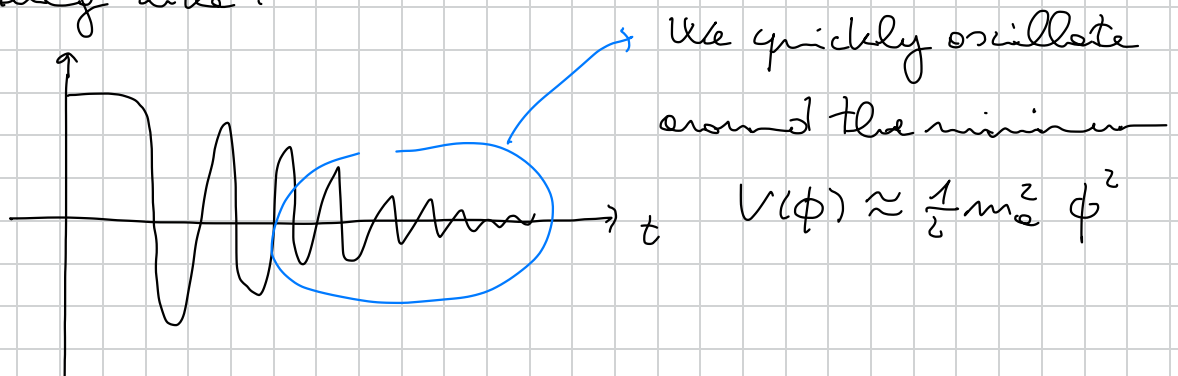
$$\Rightarrow \ddot{\phi} - \frac{1}{a^2} \nabla^2 \phi + 3H\dot{\phi} + V'(\phi) = 0$$

Gradient: $\frac{1}{a^2} \nabla^2 \phi$ decays w/ expansion \Rightarrow can neglect
(perturbations are treated separately)

$$\ddot{\phi} + 3H\dot{\phi} + V'(\phi) = 0$$

Hubble friction: dissipate energy. Oscillations are damped.

Expect something like:



$$\ddot{\phi} + 3H\dot{\phi} + m_a^2 \phi = 0$$

H decreases with time, m_a is constant or increases.

ALP case $m_a = \text{const}$

During matter / radiation $a \propto t^p \rightarrow H = \frac{p}{t}$

exact solution $\phi = a^{-3/2} \left(\frac{t}{t_i} \right)^{1/2} \left(C_1 J_n(m_a t) + C_2 Y_n(m_a t) \right)$

(if ϕ is subhorizon) ($n = (3p-1)/2$)

WKB solution: at first order $H\dot{\phi}$

$$\ddot{\phi} + m_a^2 \phi = 0 \Rightarrow \phi = A \cos(m_a t)$$

$$\dot{\phi} = \dot{A} \cos(m_a t) - m_a A \sin(m_a t)$$

$$\ddot{\phi} = \ddot{A} \cos(m_a t) - 2m_a \dot{A} \sin(m_a t) - m_a^2 A \cos(m_a t)$$

$$\ddot{A} \cos - 2m_a \dot{A} \sin - m_a^2 A \cos + 3H\dot{A} \cos - 3Hm_a A \sin + m_a^2 A \cos = 0$$

divide by $A m_a^2$ $\frac{\ddot{A}}{A m_a^2} \cos - 2 \frac{\dot{A}}{A m_a} \sin + 3 \frac{H \dot{A}}{m_a^2 A} \cos - 3 \frac{H}{m_a} \sin = 0$

empto: $\frac{\dot{A}}{A m_a} \sim \frac{H}{m_a} \sim \epsilon$, $\frac{\ddot{A}}{A m_a^2} \sim \frac{H \dot{A}}{m_a^2 A} \sim \epsilon^2$

at order ϵ : $\frac{\dot{A}}{A} = -\frac{3}{2} H = -\frac{3}{2} \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \Rightarrow A \propto a^{-3/2}$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(t) \approx \phi_{osc} \left(\frac{a_{osc}}{a} \right)^{3/2} \cos(m_a t)$$

Check: $\frac{H \dot{A}}{m_a^2 A} \sim \frac{H^2}{m_a^2} \sim \epsilon^2$ $\frac{\ddot{A}}{A m_a^2} \sim$

$$\text{For } m_\phi \ll H \rightarrow \ddot{\phi} + 3H\dot{\phi} = 0 \Rightarrow \dot{\phi} \approx 0 \text{ overdamped}$$

$$\text{Transition: around } 3H(T_{osc}) = m_\phi(T_{osc})$$

$$\text{Energy density } \rho_\phi = \rho_K + \rho_V = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_\phi^2 \phi^2$$

$$\text{averaging over many oscillations } \langle \rho_K \rangle = \langle \rho_V \rangle = \frac{\langle \rho_\phi \rangle}{2}$$

\Rightarrow at late times $\langle \rho_\phi \rangle \propto A^2 \propto e^{-3t} \Rightarrow$ scales as dark matter

$$\frac{d\rho_\phi}{dt} = \dot{\phi} \ddot{\phi} + m_\phi^2 \dot{\phi} \phi = \dot{\phi} (\ddot{\phi} + m_\phi^2 \phi) = -3H \dot{\phi}^2 = -3H \rho_\phi$$

(continuity eq of matter)

$$\text{Pressure } \langle P_\phi \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \langle \dot{\phi}^2 \rangle - \frac{1}{2} m_\phi^2 \langle \phi^2 \rangle \approx 0$$

Oscillating axions are good Δn candidates!

QCD axion

Now we let the mass vary.

Oscillations start when

$$3H(T_{\text{osc}}) = m(T_{\text{osc}})$$

I need to solve

$$g_*^{1/2} \frac{T_{\text{osc}}^2}{M_{\text{p}}^2} = m(T_{\text{osc}}) = m_0 \left(\frac{\chi(1 \text{ GeV})}{\chi(0)} \right)^{11n} \left(\frac{\text{GeV}}{T} \right)^{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow T_{\text{osc}} = 10^{\frac{6.35}{4+\alpha}} \text{ GeV} \left(\frac{10^{10} \text{ GeV}}{f_0} \right)^{\frac{2}{4+\alpha}} \left(\frac{g_*(5 \text{ GeV})}{g_*(T_{\text{osc}})} \right)^{\frac{1}{4+\alpha}} \left(\frac{\chi(1 \text{ GeV})}{\chi(0)} \right)^{\frac{1}{4+\alpha}}$$

$\approx 5.3 \text{ GeV}$

$$m(T_{\text{osc}}) \approx 0.1 \mu\text{eV}$$

Now solve the equation of motion

Define $\Theta = \frac{\phi}{f}$: $\ddot{\Theta} + 3H\dot{\Theta} + m^2\Theta = 0 \quad -\pi < \Theta \leq \pi$

Some Hubble friction is not efficient during a single oscillation

Given the energy

$$\rho = f^2 \left(\dot{\Theta}^2 + m^2 \Theta^2 \right) / 2$$

I have $\rho_{\phi} = f^2 \langle \dot{\Theta}^2 \rangle = f^2 m^2 \langle \Theta^2 \rangle$

I multiply the eqn by $f^2 \dot{\Theta}$ and take the time average over a single oscillation

$$f^2 \left\langle \left(\dot{\Theta} \ddot{\Theta} + 3H \dot{\Theta}^2 + m^2 \Theta \dot{\Theta} \right) \right\rangle =$$

$$= f^2 \left\langle \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{\Theta}^2 + \frac{m^2}{2} \Theta^2 \right) - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \Theta^2 + 3H \dot{\Theta}^2 \right\rangle =$$

$$= f \left\langle \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{\theta}^2 + \frac{m^2}{2} \theta^2 \right) - \frac{1}{2} m \dot{m} \theta^2 + 3H \dot{\theta}^2 \right\rangle =$$

$$= \langle \dot{\rho} \rangle - \frac{1}{2} f^2 m^2 \frac{\dot{m}}{m} \langle \theta^2 \rangle + 3H \langle \dot{\theta}^2 \rangle =$$

$$= \dot{\rho} - \frac{\dot{m}_a}{m_a} \rho + 3H \rho = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{\rho} = - \left(3H - \frac{\dot{m}_a}{m_a} \right) \rho$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho_\phi = \text{const} \frac{m_\phi(T)}{a^3}$$

Define the "number of axions"

$$n_\phi = \frac{\rho_\phi}{m_\phi} = \frac{\text{const}}{a^3} \Rightarrow m_\phi a^3 = \text{const} \text{ even when the mass vary!}$$

\Rightarrow with no entropy production the axion yield is constant

$$Y_\phi = \frac{n_\phi}{s} = \text{const}$$

$$= \frac{\rho_\phi}{m_\phi s} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} m_\phi^2 f_\phi^2 \theta_i^2}{m_\phi s} = \frac{m_\phi(T) f_\phi^2 \theta_i^2}{2s}$$

Remember today

$$\rho_{\phi,0} = m_{\phi,0} n_{\phi,0} = m_{\phi,0} Y_{\phi,osc} s_0 = \frac{m_{\phi,0}^2 f_\phi^2}{2} \left(\frac{m_{\phi,osc}}{m_{\phi,0}} \right) \frac{s_0}{s_{osc}} \theta_i^2$$

$$= \frac{m_{\phi,0}^2 f_\phi^2}{2} \frac{3H(T_{osc})}{m_{\phi,0}} \frac{g_{*S,0} T_0^3}{g_{*S,osc} T_{osc}^3} \theta_i^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \Omega_\phi h^2 \approx 0.12 \text{ for } f_\phi \approx 10^{16} \text{ GeV for } \alpha = 2$$

Alternative way (more powerful technique):

use an adiabatic invariant for Lagrange mechanics

$$\text{Define } \Theta = \frac{\phi}{f} : \quad \ddot{\Theta} + 3H\dot{\Theta} + m^2\Theta = 0 \quad -\pi < \Theta \leq \pi$$

The eq can be derived for the Lagrangian

$$L = a^3 \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{\Theta}^2 - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \Theta^2 \right) \rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\Theta}} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \Theta} = 0$$

Assume $H \ll m \rightarrow$ obvious, since oscillations are faster before

$$\frac{\dot{m}}{m} \ll m : \quad \frac{\dot{m}}{m} = \frac{1}{m} \frac{dm}{dt} \frac{dT}{dt} = -m \frac{1}{T} \frac{dT}{da} \frac{da}{dt} = mH$$

$$\text{Define } p_{\Theta} \equiv \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\Theta}} = a^3 \dot{\Theta}$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \frac{1}{2\pi} \oint p_{\Theta} d\Theta$$

I is invariant in time as we go on with the damped oscillations

Let's compute I :

Consider a single oscillation. The energy, within one oscillation, is almost conserved and a is constant.

$$E = a^3 \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{\Theta}^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \Theta^2 \right) = \frac{p_{\Theta}^2}{2a^3} + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \Theta^2 a^3 = \frac{1}{2} m^2 \Theta_c^2 a^3$$

$$p_{\Theta} = m a^3 (\Theta_c^2 - \Theta^2)^{1/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \frac{m a^3}{2\pi} 2 \times \int_{-\Theta_c}^{\Theta_c} (\Theta_c^2 - \Theta^2)^{1/2} d\Theta$$

$$= \frac{m a^3}{\pi} \frac{1}{2} \pi \Theta_c^2 = \frac{a^3 m \Theta_c^2}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow a_0^3 m_0 \Theta_0^2 = a_{osc}^3 m_{osc} \Theta_i^2$$

Initial conditions

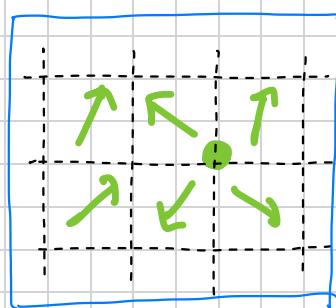
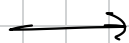
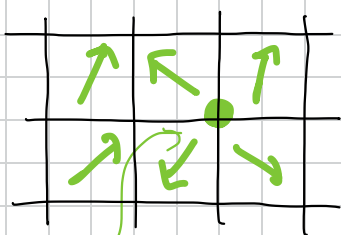
It all depends on when the PQ symmetry is spontaneously broken (ie $\Phi \rightarrow (f+r) e^{i\phi/f}$)

Remember that: Hubble patches exist as causally separated worlds, because light takes $\Delta t \sim H^{-1}$ to travel $\Delta x \sim H^{-1}$.

- post-inflationary breaking:

$$H_I > f \quad \text{and} \quad T_{\text{reh}} > f$$

In each patch SSB proceeds independently



$\sim H^{-1}$ visible universe at T_{osc}

H_0^{-1} visible universe today

$\frac{\phi_i}{f}$ assume all values in the range $(0, 2\pi)$. Thus, I take an average of θ_i^2 :

$$\theta_i^2 \rightarrow \langle \theta^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \theta^2 d\theta = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{\pi^3}{3} \cdot 2 = \frac{\pi^2}{3}$$

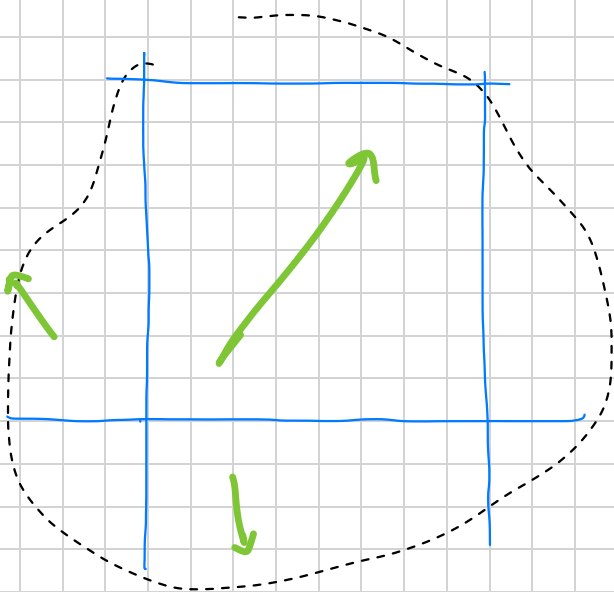
NB: we have approximated $|\theta| \ll \pi$, but we average over the full range. One can be more precise and get a $\mathcal{O}(1)$ correction.

- breaking before/during inflation

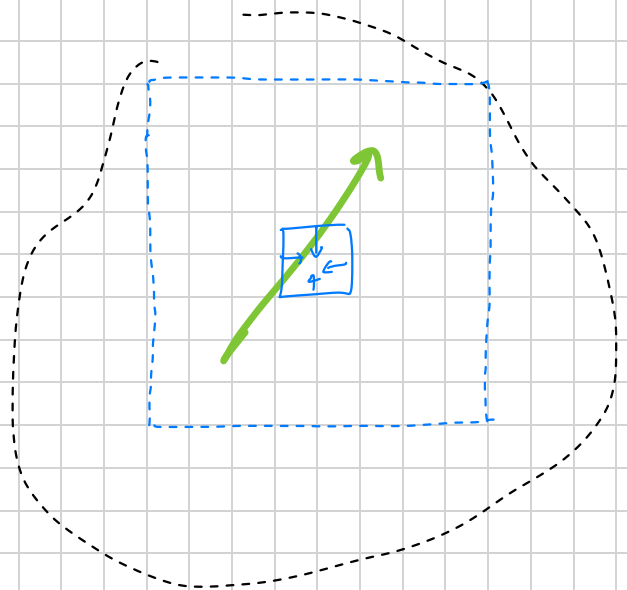
As before, each Hubble patch has a different value of ϕ .

This time, patches are inflated outside the Hubble horizon
(remember: during inflation the physical horizon $(aH)^{-1}$ shrinks)

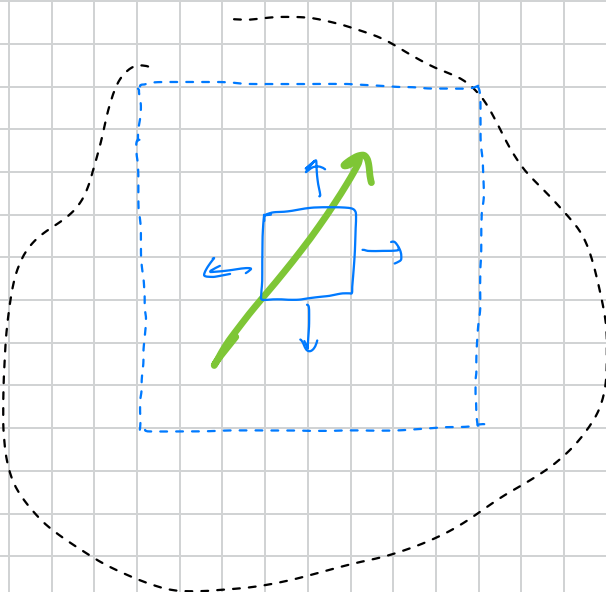
When the horizon grows again after inflation, ϕ is the same everywhere



before inflation



during inflation: horizon shrinks



after inflation: horizon grows again, but slowly

$\frac{\phi_i}{f}$ is constant everywhere

\Rightarrow nearly distributed $(-\pi, \pi)$

- if $\Theta_i \ll 1$ \exists a time the abundance to be small
- if $\Theta_i \approx \pm\pi$ \exists a delay the start of oscillation for some time
(increase the final abundance!)

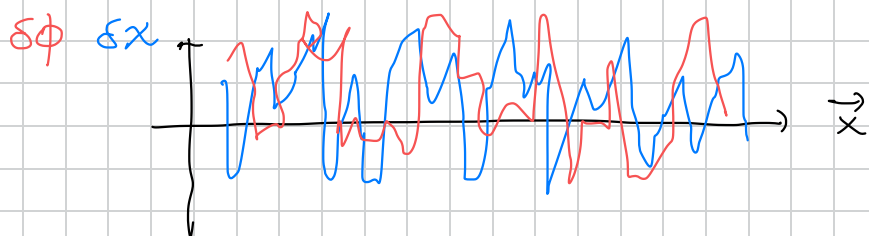
One quick word on isocurvature perturbations:

If PQ is broken during inflation, the axion exists as a light field and obtains some random fluctuations during inflation.

Statistically speaking, each Hubble time we get a "kick" with st. dev.

$$\sqrt{\langle \delta\phi^2 \rangle} = \frac{H_I}{2\pi}$$

The same happens to the inflaton χ , independently. At the end of inflation, ϕ and χ have different distributions.



The correct quantity that measures this difference is

$$\frac{\delta\phi}{\dot{\phi}} \neq \frac{\delta\chi}{\dot{\chi}}$$

χ decays to the thermal bath $\Rightarrow \delta\chi \leftrightarrow \delta T$. All particles in the thermal bath share the same temperature thus

$$\frac{\delta\rho_i}{(1+w_i)\bar{\rho}_i} = \frac{\delta\rho_j}{(1+w_j)\bar{\rho}_j} \neq \frac{\delta\rho_\phi}{(1+w_\phi)\bar{\rho}_\phi}$$

There exist strong limits on these differences (isocurvature perturbations)

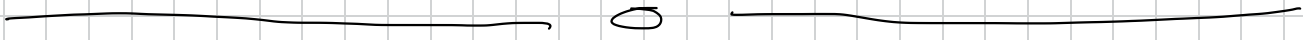
Axion searches

(main reference: 1812.02669)

Two broad categories:

DM independent: the axion is just another particle in the spectrum, and I look for it through its couplings to SM

Axion DM searches: I exploit the fact that I have a large classical background axion field and look for its influence on other stuff in the lab, typically a large EM field.



DM independent searches

1) rare meson decays

axion - meson mixing + a gg coupling

relevant for $m_a \lesssim 100 \text{ MeV}$ (light compared to the mesons)

$$f_a \lesssim 10^4 \text{ GeV}$$

2) stellar cooling

$f_a \lesssim 10^7 - 10^8 \text{ GeV}$ and $m_a \lesssim 100 \text{ keV}$ ($\sim T_{\text{core}}$)

the axion can be produced in the star and escape, draining some of the energy.

eg $e + N \rightarrow e + N + a$,



$$e + \gamma \rightarrow e + a$$



3) Supernovae:

$$10^6 \text{ GeV} \leq f_a \leq 10^8 \text{ GeV} \quad m_a \lesssim 100 \text{ MeV} (\sim T_{\text{core}})$$

assume that the energy carried away by axions is \lesssim the that into neutrinos

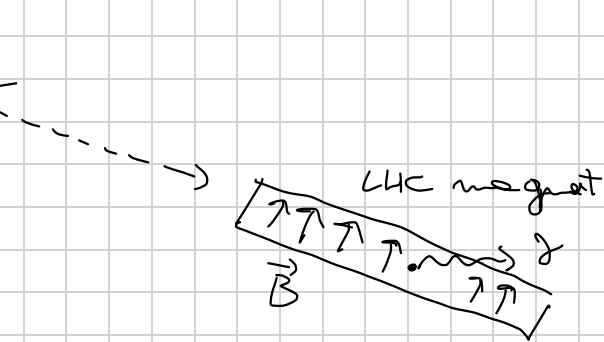
For small f_a axions do not escape

4) Axion helioscopes (CAST, (Baby-) IAXO)

$$g_{\text{ax}} \propto \vec{P} \cdot \vec{F} \sim g_{\text{ax}} \propto \vec{E} \cdot \vec{B}$$

in a very large external \vec{B} field, this is a mixing term for axions and photons.

\Rightarrow look for photo generated inside the experiment for converting some axion produced in the Sun.



$$g_{\text{ax}} \lesssim 10^{-10} \text{ GeV}^{-1} \text{ for } m_a \lesssim \text{eV}$$

5) Similar idea: light shining through walls

$$g_{\text{ax}} \lesssim 10^{-2} \text{ GeV}^{-1} \text{ for } m_a \lesssim 10^{-3} \text{ eV}$$

Shoot a laser at a wall w/ a strong magnetic field. Some γ s converted to axions and traverse the wall. Convert back to γ s after the wall



6) polarization: axions mix only with the photons ~~at~~ perpendicular to the \vec{B} field. A laser travelling through a region w/ a \vec{B} field can have its polarization messed up

7) BH superradiance

Spinning BHs have a region (ergosphere) in which, if an object falls in, the object is accelerated and thrown away.

If axions exist, they can use this to abstract energy from the BH. The existence of fast spinning BHs contains the existence and properties of axions.

8) Fifth force: axions mediate the following forces

* if $\bar{\theta} \neq 0$, $\bar{\theta} \psi \bar{\psi} \propto \frac{m\psi}{f_a} \Rightarrow$ new Yukawa force $\sim \frac{1}{r^2}$

* $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \bar{\psi} \gamma^i \gamma_5 \psi \Rightarrow \frac{1}{f_a^2 r^4}$ spin-dependent force

* cross-term $\Rightarrow \frac{\bar{\theta}}{f_a r^3}$

9) $\bar{\theta} = \pi$ inside NS

For light axions, the potential flips at finite density

$\Rightarrow \bar{\theta} = \pi$ inside a NS, 0 outside

Affect NS mergers measured by LIGO.

10) $\bar{\theta} = \pi$ inside the Sun. Also excluded

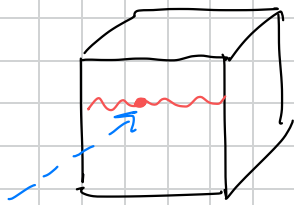
Axion DM searches

1) Astrophysical probes: DM- γ conversion in astrophysical magnetic fields

2) Haloscopes (ADMX)

DM converting into photons in a resonating cavity with magnetic fields.

Cavity modes' frequencies have to match m_a



w/ cavities (ADMX)

or dielectrics (MADMAX)

3) Similarly, axions can act as a current

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} + \vec{J} + \frac{\dot{\alpha}}{f} \vec{B}$$

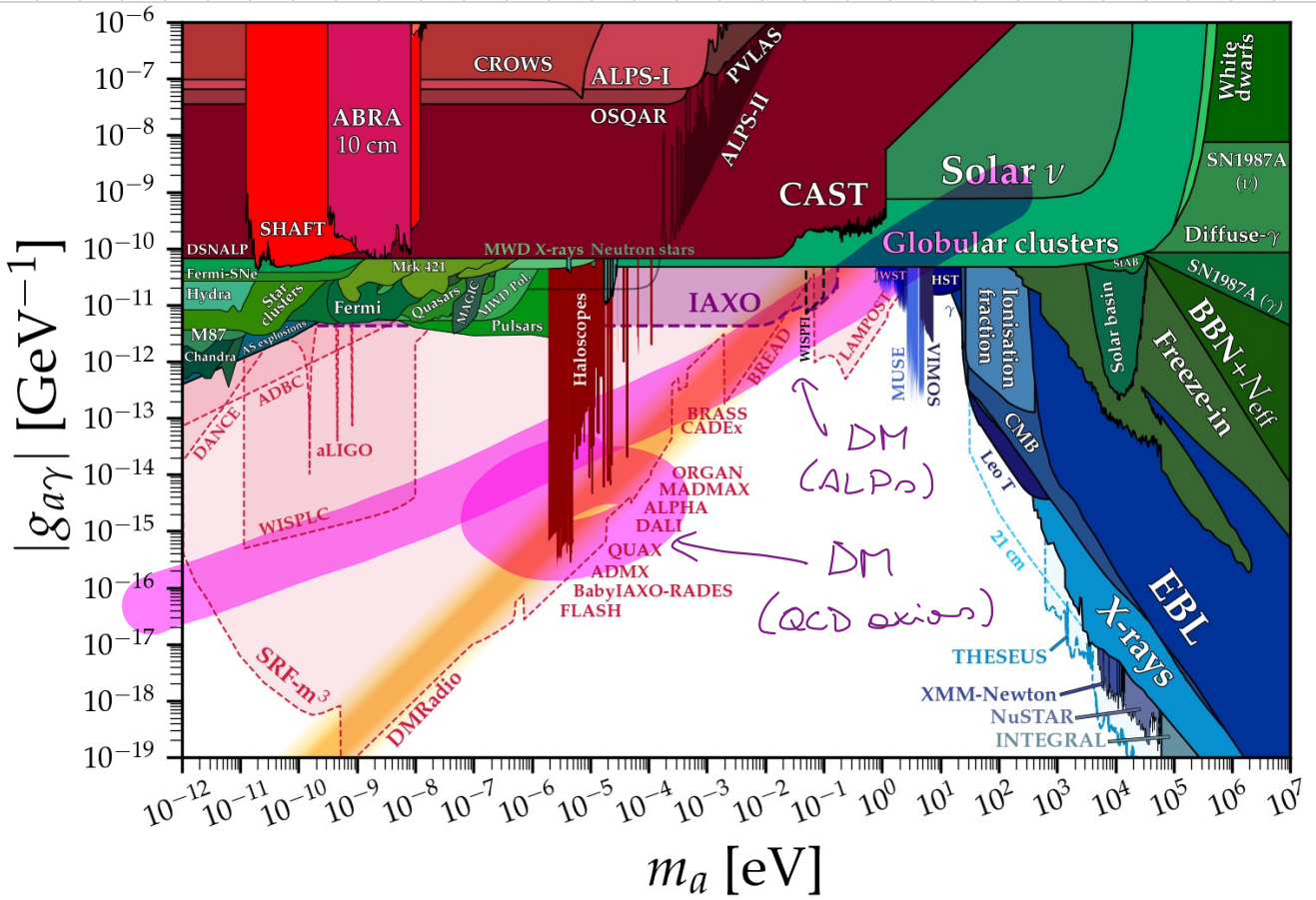
\Rightarrow generates $\vec{B} \neq 0$ outside dielectrics

4) Nuclear magnetic resonance

oscillating $\alpha \sim \bar{\theta} \neq 0 \sim$ electric dipole $\neq 0$

\Rightarrow nuclei spins oscillate in external $\vec{E} \neq 0$
(precess)

Limits on axion-photon couplings



<https://cajohare.github.io/AxionLimits/>

(updated: 05/2024)