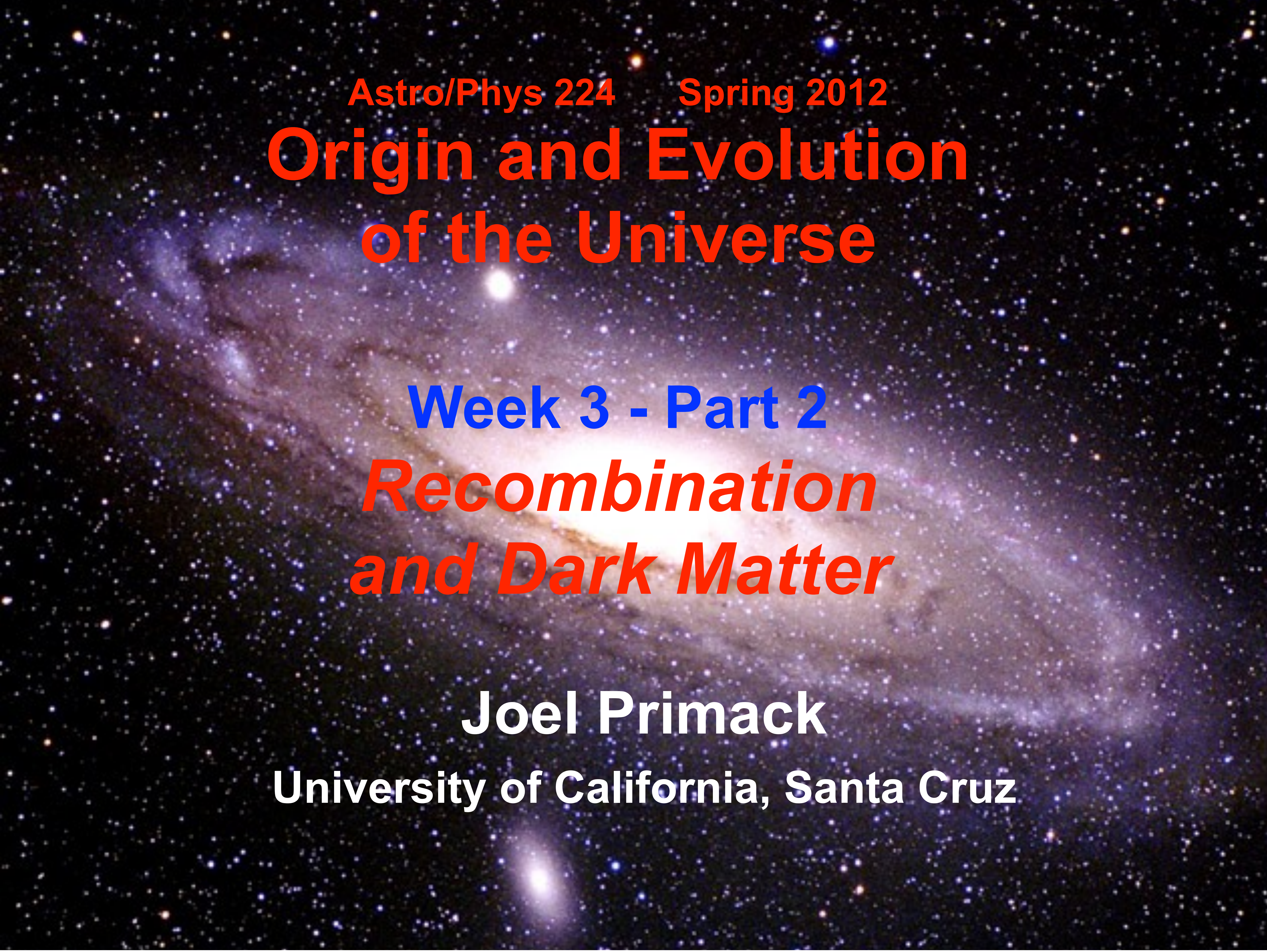

Astro/Phys 224 Spring 2012

Origin and Evolution of the Universe

Week 3 - Part 2

Recombination and Dark Matter

Joel Primack

University of California, Santa Cruz

PDG particle data group

http://pdg.lbl.gov/

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News

The 2011 web edition of Reviews, Tables, and Plots is now available in addition to the 2011 Particle Listings, Summary Tables, and pdgLive.

The Review of Particle Physics

K. Nakamura *et al.* (Particle Data Group), J. Phys. G **37**, 075021 (2010) and 2011 partial update for the 2012 edition.

pdgLive - Interactive Listings

Summary Tables

Reviews, Tables, Plots

Particle Listings

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In addition to the textbooks listed on the Syllabus, a good place to find up-to-date information is the Particle Data Group websites
http://pdg.lbl.gov
http://pdg.lbl.gov/2011/reviews/contents_sports.html

For example, there are 2011 Mini-Reviews of

Experimental Tests of GR
http://pdg.lbl.gov/2011/reviews/rpp2011-rev-gravity-tests.pdf

Big Bang Nucleosynthesis including a discussion of ^{7}Li
http://pdg.lbl.gov/2011/reviews/rpp2011-rev-bbang-nucleosynthesis.pdf

Big-Bang Cosmology
http://pdg.lbl.gov/2011/reviews/rpp2011-rev-bbang-cosmology.pdf

Cosmological Parameters
http://pdg.lbl.gov/2011/reviews/rpp2011-rev-cosmological-parameters.pdf

CMB
http://pdg.lbl.gov/2011/reviews/rpp2011-rev-cosmic-microwave-background.pdf

and Dark Matter http://pdg.lbl.gov/2011/reviews/rpp2011-rev-dark-matter.pdf

Boltzmann Equation

$$a^{-3}\frac{d\left(n_1 a^3\right)}{dt} = \int \frac{d^3p_1}{(2\pi)^3 2E_1} \int \frac{d^3p_2}{(2\pi)^3 2E_2} \int \frac{d^3p_3}{(2\pi)^3 2E_3} \int \frac{d^3p_4}{(2\pi)^3 2E_4}$$

$$\times (2\pi)^4 \delta^3(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4)\delta(E_1 + E_2 - E_3 - E_4)\,|\mathcal{M}|^2$$

$$\times \{f_3 f_4[1 \pm f_1][1 \pm f_2] - f_1 f_2[1 \pm f_3][1 \pm f_4]\}\,.$$

Dodelson (3.1)

In the absence of interactions (rhs=0) n_1 falls as a^{-3}

+ bosons
- fermions

We will typically be interested in T>> E-μ (where μ is the chemical potential). In this limit, the exponential in the Fermi-Dirac or Bose-Einstein distributions is much larger than the ±1 in the denominator, so that

$$f(E) \to e^{\mu/T} e^{-E/T}$$

and the last line of the Boltzmann equation above simplifies to

$$f_3 f_4[1 \pm f_1][1 \pm f_2] - f_1 f_2[1 \pm f_3][1 \pm f_4]$$
$$\to \quad e^{-(E_1+E_2)/T}\left\{e^{(\mu_3+\mu_4)/T} - e^{(\mu_1+\mu_2)/T}\right\}.$$

The number densities are given by $n_i = g_i e^{\mu_i/T}\int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-E_i/T}$. For our applications, i's are

Table 3.1. Reactions in This Chapter: $1 + 2 \leftrightarrow 3 + 4$

	1	2	3	4
Neutron-Proton Ratio	n	ν_e or e^+	p	e^- or $\bar{\nu}_e$
Recombination	e	p	H	γ
Dark Matter Production	X	X	l	l

The equilibrium number densities are given by

$$n_i^{(0)} \equiv g_i \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-E_i/T} = \begin{cases} g_i \left(\frac{m_i T}{2\pi}\right)^{3/2} e^{-m_i/T} & m_i \gg T \\ g_i \frac{T^3}{\pi^2} & m_i \ll T \end{cases}. \tag{3.6}$$

With this defintion, $e^{\mu_i/T}$ can be rewritten as $n_i/n_i^{(0)}$, so the last line of Eq. (3.1) is equal to

$$e^{-(E_1+E_2)/T} \left\{ \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^{(0)} n_4^{(0)}} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^{(0)} n_2^{(0)}} \right\}. \tag{3.7}$$

With these approximations the Boltzmann equation now simplifies enormously. Define the thermally averaged cross section as

$$\langle \sigma v \rangle \equiv \frac{1}{n_1^{(0)} n_2^{(0)}} \int \frac{d^3p_1}{(2\pi)^3 2E_1} \int \frac{d^3p_2}{(2\pi)^3 2E_2} \int \frac{d^3p_3}{(2\pi)^3 2E_3} \int \frac{d^3p_4}{(2\pi)^3 2E_4} e^{-(E_1+E_2)/T}$$

$$\times (2\pi)^4 \delta^3(p_1 + p_2 - p_3 - p_4) \delta(E_1 + E_2 - E_3 - E_4) |\mathcal{M}|^2 . \tag{3.8}$$

Then, the Boltzmann equation becomes

$$a^{-3} \frac{d\left(n_1 a^3\right)}{dt} = n_1^{(0)} n_2^{(0)} \langle \sigma v \rangle \left\{ \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^{(0)} n_4^{(0)}} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^{(0)} n_2^{(0)}} \right\}. \tag{3.9}$$

If the reaction rate $n_2 \langle \sigma v \rangle$ is much smaller than the expansion rate (~ H), then the {} on the rhs must vanish. This is called *chemical equilibrium* in the context of the early universe, *nuclear statistical equilibrium* (NSE) in the context of Big Bang nucleosynthesis, and the *Saha equation* when discussing recombination of electrons and protons to form neutral hydrogen.

BBN is a Prototype for Hydrogen Recombination and DM Annihilation

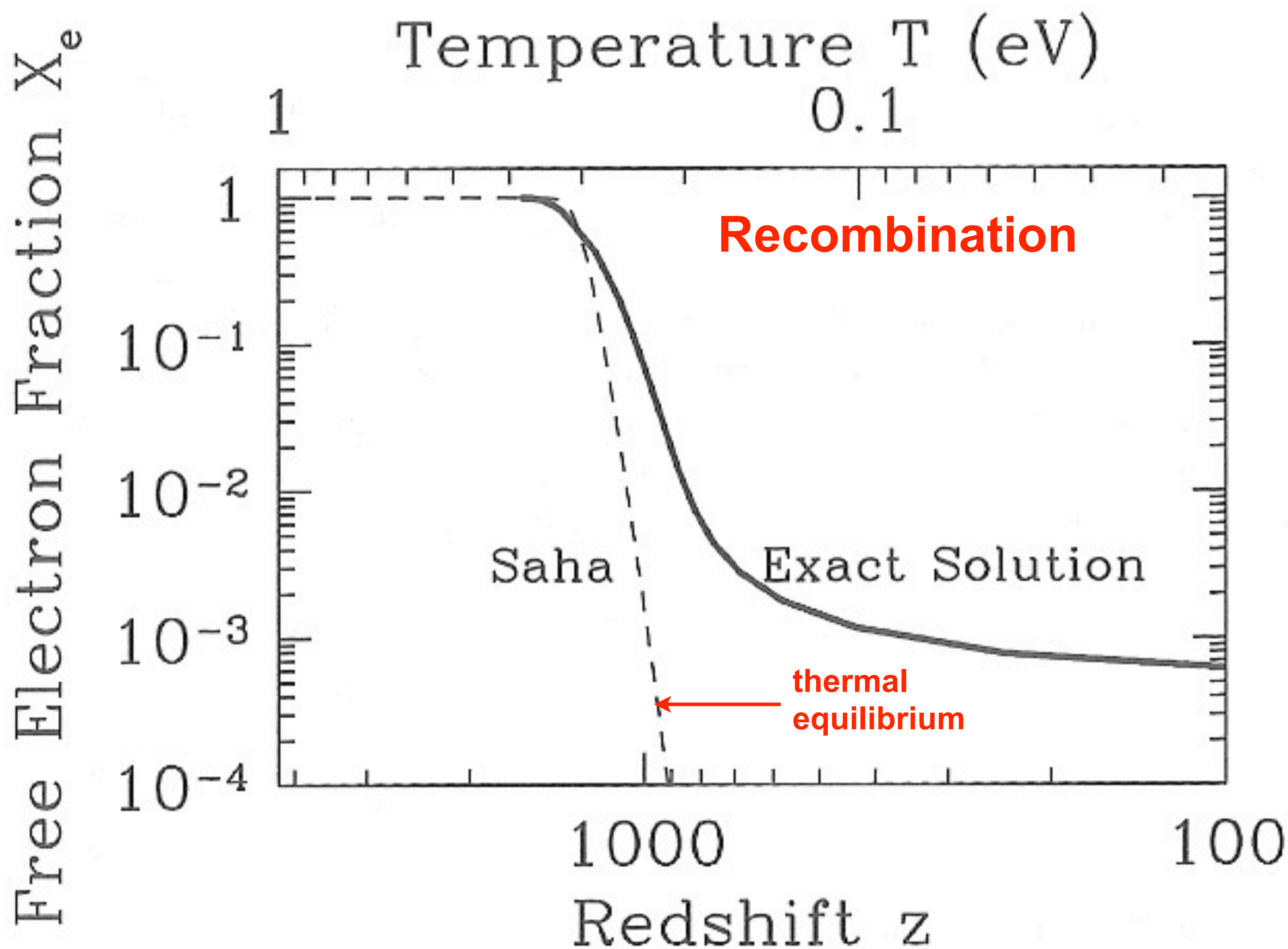


Figure 3.4. Free electron fraction as a function of redshift. Recombination takes place suddenly at $z \sim 1000$ corresponding to $T \sim 1/4$ eV. The Saha approximation, Eq. (3.37), holds in equilibrium and correctly identifies the redshift of recombination, but not the detailed evolution of X_e. Here $\Omega_b = 0.06, \Omega_m = 1, h = 0.5$.

Dodelson, *Modern Cosmology*, p. 72

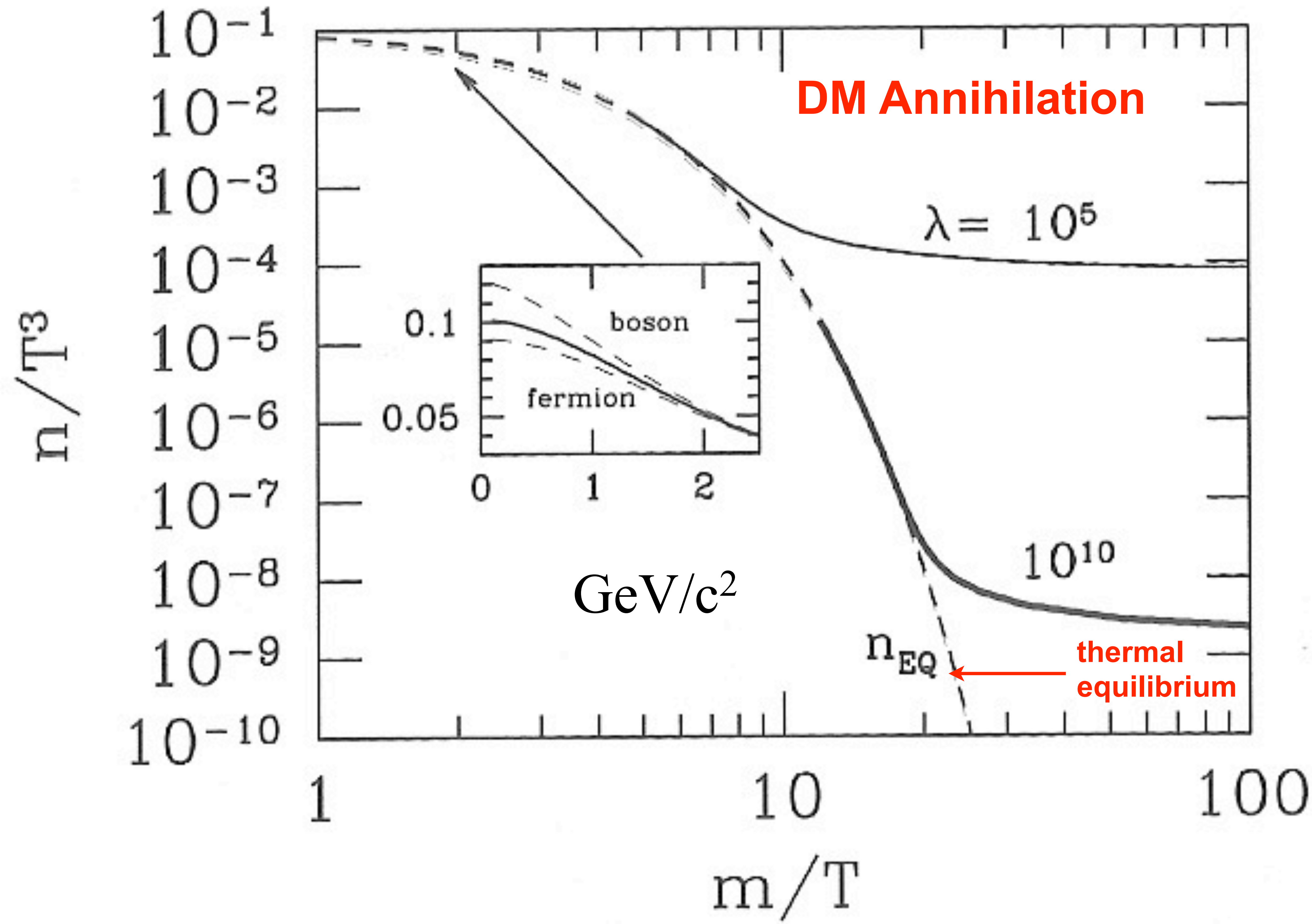


Figure 3.5. Abundance of heavy stable particle as the temperature drops beneath its mass. Dashed line is equilibrium abundance. Two different solid curves show heavy particle abundance for two different values of λ, the ratio of the annihilation rate to the Hubble rate. Inset shows that the difference between quantum statistics and Boltzmann statistics is important only at temperatures larger than the mass.

Dodelson, *Modern Cosmology*, p. 76

(Re)combination: $e^- + p \to H$

As long as e- + p ⇔ H remains in equilibrium, the condition

$$\left\{ \frac{n_3 n_4}{n_3^{(0)} n_4^{(0)}} - \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1^{(0)} n_2^{(0)}} \right\} = 0$$

with 1 = e^-, 2 = p, 3 = H, ensures that

$$\frac{n_e n_p}{n_H} = \frac{n_e^{(0)} n_p^{(0)}}{n_H^{(0)}}.$$

Neutrality ensures $n_p = n_e$. Defining the free electron fraction

$$X_e \equiv \frac{n_e}{n_e + n_H} = \frac{n_p}{n_p + n_H},$$

the equation above becomes

$$\frac{X_e^2}{1 - X_e} = \frac{1}{n_e + n_H} \left[\left(\frac{m_e T}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} e^{-[m_e + m_p - m_H]/T} \right]$$

, which

ε = 13.6 eV

is known as the *Saha equation*. When T ~ ε, the rhs ~ 10^{15}, so X_e is very close to 1 and very little recombination has yet occurred. As T drops, the free electron fraction also drops, and as it approaches 0 equilibrium cannot be maintained. To follow the freezeout of the electron fraction, it is necessary to use the Boltzmann equation

$$a^{-3} \frac{d\left(n_e a^3\right)}{dt} = n_e^{(0)} n_p^{(0)} \langle \sigma v \rangle \left\{ \frac{n_H}{n_H^{(0)}} - \frac{n_e^2}{n_e^{(0)} n_p^{(0)}} \right\}$$

$$= n_b \langle \sigma v \rangle \left\{ (1 - X_e) \left(\frac{m_e T}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} e^{-\epsilon_0/T} - X_e^2 n_b \right\}$$

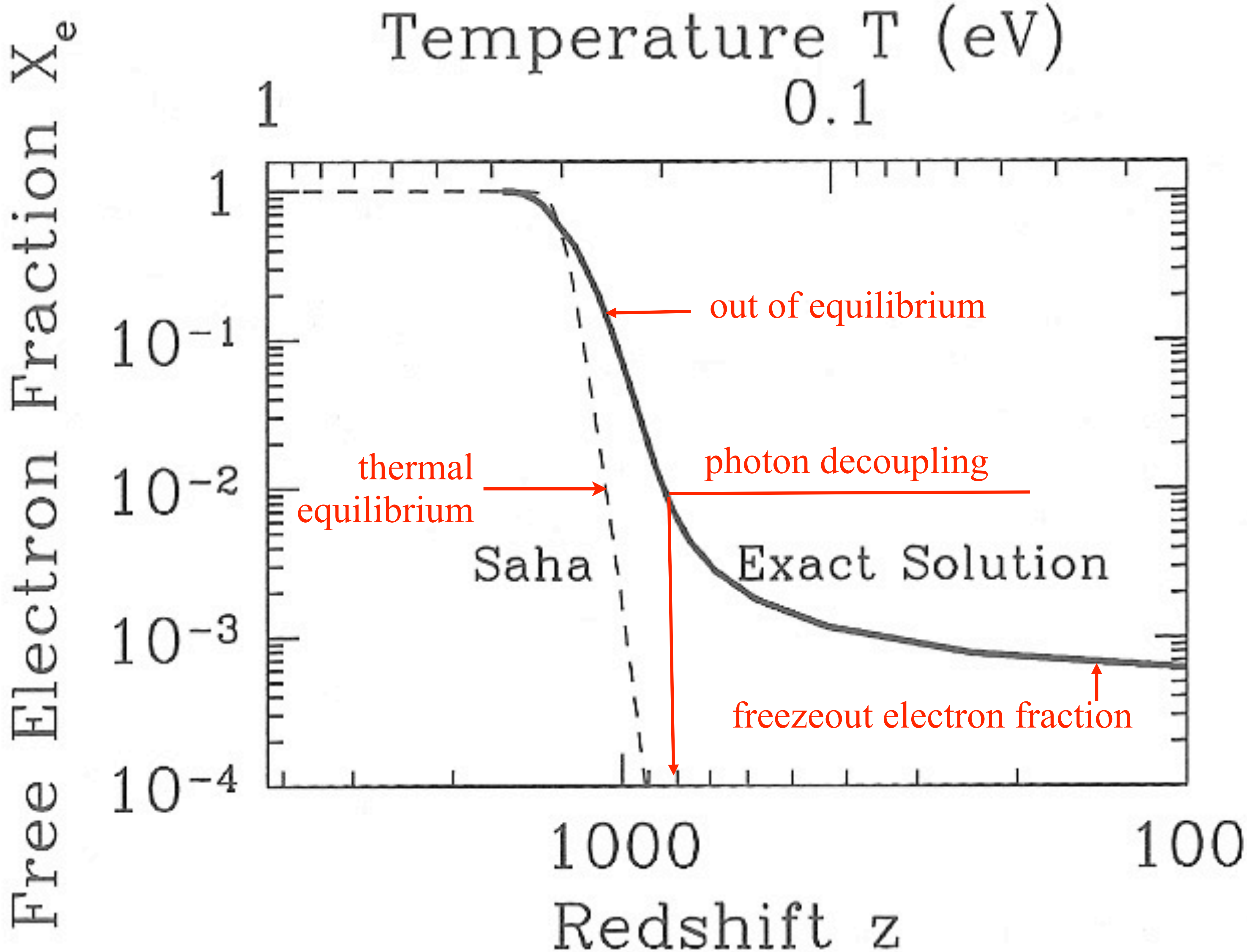
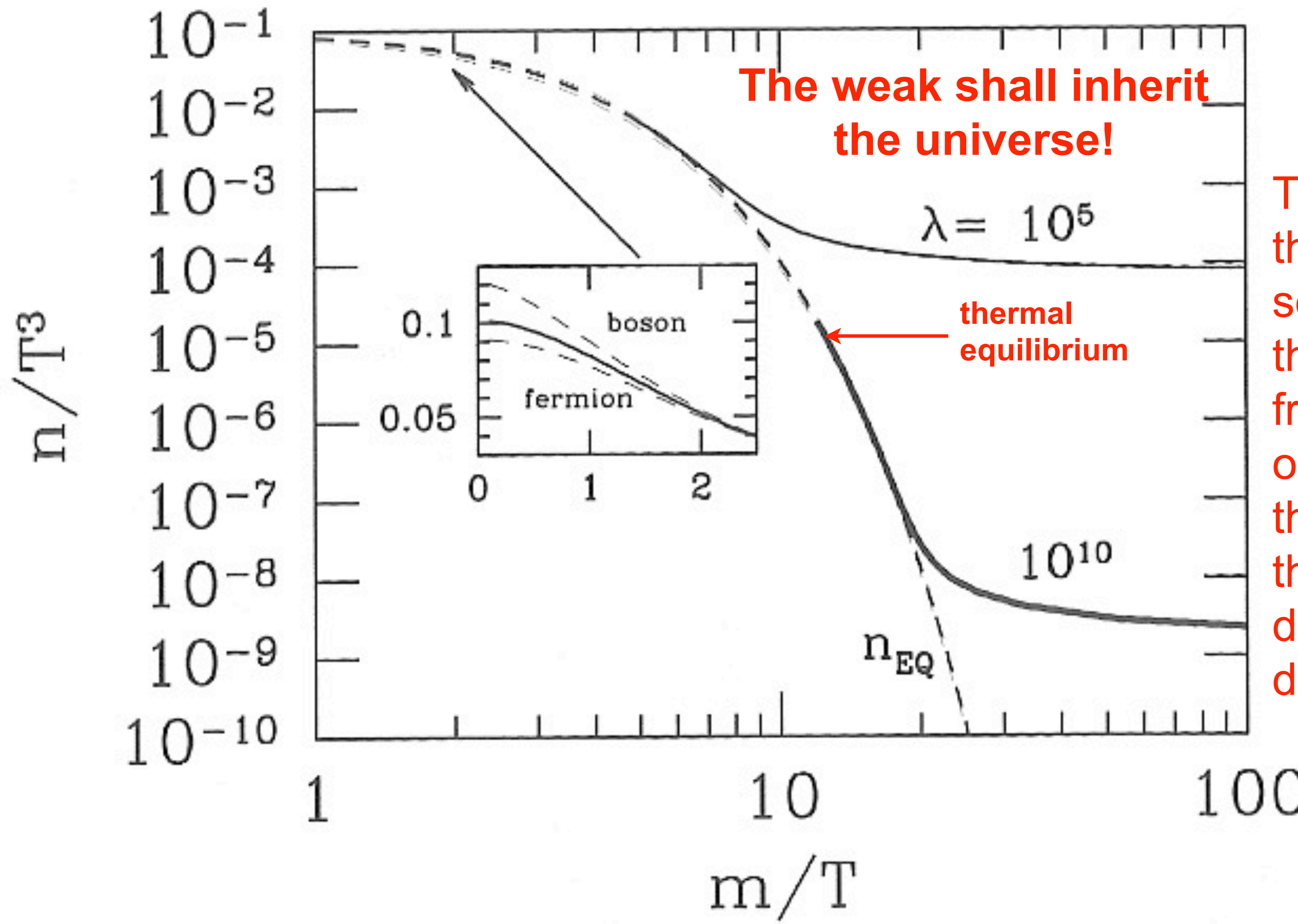


Figure 3.4. Free electron fraction as a function of redshift. Recombination takes place suddenly at $z \sim 1000$ corresponding to $T \sim 1/4$ eV. The Saha approximation, Eq. (3.37), holds in equilibrium and correctly identifies the redshift of recombination, but not the detailed evolution of X_e. Here $\Omega_b = 0.06, \Omega_m = 1, h = 0.5$.

Dodelson, *Modern Cosmology*, p. 72

Dark Matter Annihilation



The weaker the cross section, the earlier freezeout occurs, and the larger the resulting dark matter density.

Figure 3.5. Abundance of heavy stable particle as the temperature drops beneath its mass. Dashed line is equilibrium abundance. Two different solid curves show heavy particle abundance for two different values of λ, the ratio of the annihilation rate to the Hubble rate. Inset shows that the difference between quantum statistics and Boltzmann statistics is important only at temperatures larger than the mass.

Dodelson, *Modern Cosmology*, p. 76

Dark Matter Annihilation

The abundance today of dark matter particles X of the WIMP variety is determined by their survival of annihilation in the early universe. Supersymmetric neutralinos can annihilate with each other (and sometimes with other particles: "co-annihilation").
Dark matter annihilation follows the same pattern as the previous discussions: initially the abundance of dark matter particles X is given by the equilibrium Boltzmann exponential $\exp(-m_X/T)$, but as they start to disappear they have trouble finding each other and eventually their number density freezes out. The freezeout process can be followed using the Boltzmann equation, as discussed in Kolb and Turner, Dodelson, Mukhanov, and other textbooks. For a detailed discussion of Susy WIMPs, see the review article by Jungman, Kamionkowski, and Griest (1996). The result is that the abundance today of WIMPs X is given in most cases by (Dodelson's Eqs. 3.59-60)

$$\Omega_X = \left[\frac{4\pi^3 G g_*(m)}{45}\right]^{1/2} \frac{x_f T_0^3}{30\langle\sigma v\rangle \rho_{cr}} = 0.3h^{-2}\left(\frac{x_f}{10}\right)\left(\frac{g_*(m)}{100}\right)^{1/2} \frac{10^{-39}\text{cm}^2}{\langle\sigma v\rangle}.$$

Here $x_f \approx 10$ is the ratio of m_X to the freezeout temperature T_f, and $g_*(m_X) \approx 100$ is the density of states factor in the expression for the energy density of the universe when the temperature equals m_X

$$\rho = \frac{\pi^2}{30}T^4\left[\sum_{i=\text{bosons}} g_i + \frac{7}{8}\sum_{i=\text{fermions}} g_i\right] \equiv g_*\frac{\pi^2}{30}T^4.$$

The sum is over relativistic species i (see the graph of $g(T)$ on the next slide). Note that more X's survive, the weaker the cross section σ. For Susy WIMPs the natural values are $\sigma \sim 10^{-39}$ cm^2, so $\Omega_X \approx 1$ naturally.

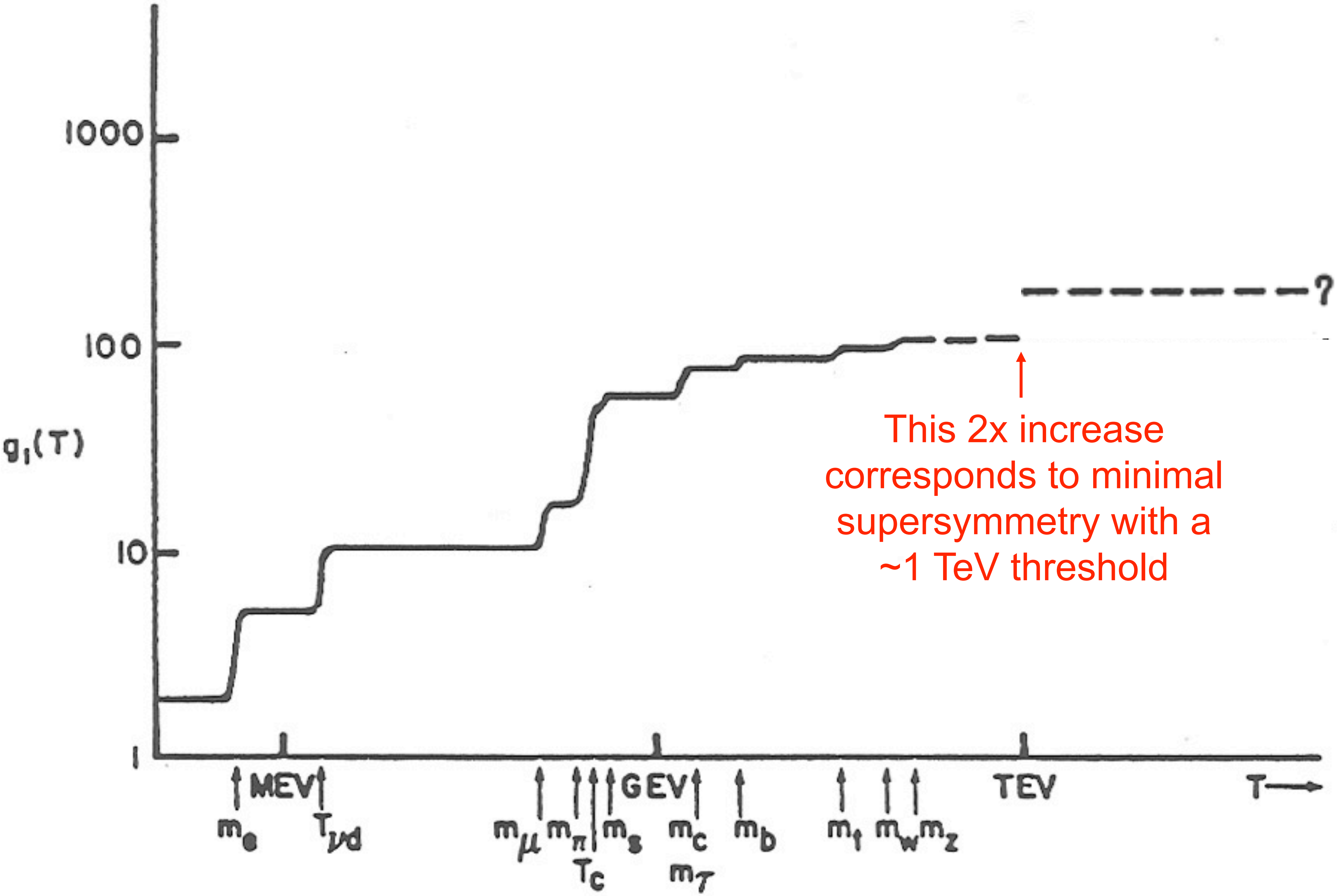


Fig. 1 The effective number of degrees of freedom of thermally interacting relativistic particles as a function of temperature.

Supersymmetry is the basis of most attempts, such as superstring theory, to go beyond the current "Standard Model" of particle physics. Heinz Pagels and Joel Primack pointed out in a 1982 paper that the lightest supersymmetric partner particle is stable because of R-parity, and is thus a good candidate for the dark matter particles – weakly interacting massive particles (**WIMP**s).

Michael Dine and others pointed out that the **axion**, a particle needed to save the strong interactions from violating CP symmetry, could also be the dark matter particle. Searches for both are underway.

Supersymmetric WIMPs

When the British physicist Paul Dirac first combined Special Relativity with quantum mechanics, he found that this predicted that for every ordinary particle like the electron, there must be another particle with the opposite electric charge – the anti-electron (positron). Similarly, corresponding to the proton there must be an anti-proton. Supersymmetry appears to be required to combine General Relativity (our modern theory of space, time, and gravity) with the other forces of nature (the electromagnetic, weak, and strong interactions). The consequence is another doubling of the number of particles, since supersymmetry predicts that for every particle that we now know, including the antiparticles, there must be another, thus far undiscovered particle with the same electric charge but with *spin* differing by half a unit.

Spin	**Matter** (fermions)	**Forces** (bosons)
2		graviton
1		photon, $W^{\pm}$, Z^0 gluons
1/2	quarks u,d,... leptons e, ν_e, ...	
0		Higgs bosons axion

Supersymmetric WIMPs

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after doubling

Spin	Matter (fermions)	Forces (bosons)	Hypothetical Superpartners	Spin
2		graviton	gravitino	3/2
1		photon, $W^{\pm}, Z^0$ gluons	photino, winos, zino, gluinos	1/2
1/2	quarks u,d,... leptons $e, \nu_e, \ldots$		squarks $\tilde{u}, \tilde{d}, \ldots$ sleptons $\tilde{e}, \tilde{\nu}_e, \ldots$	0
0		Higgs bosons axion	Higgsinos axinos	1/2

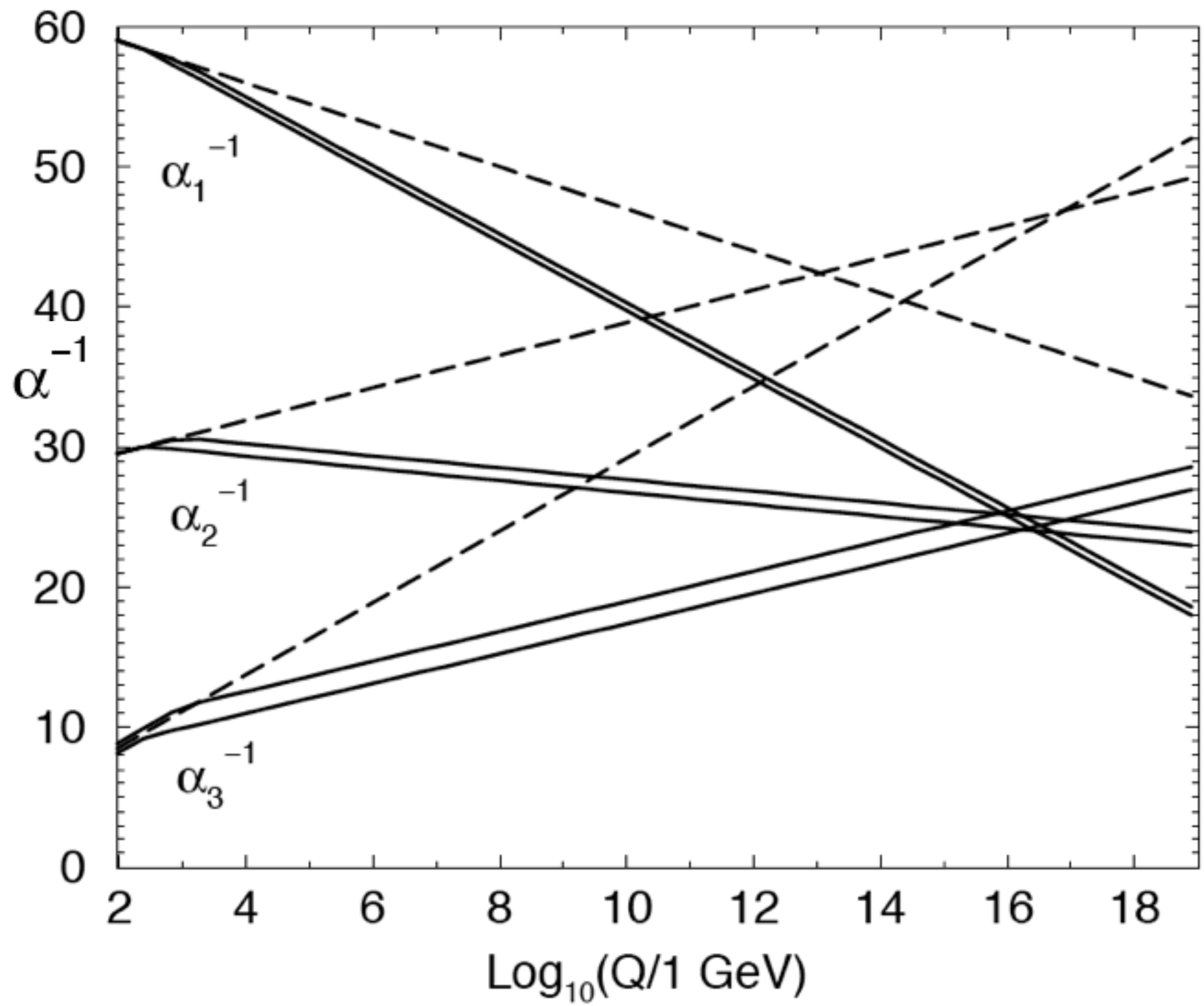
Note: Supersymmetric cold dark matter candidate particles are underlined.

Supersymmetric WIMPs, continued

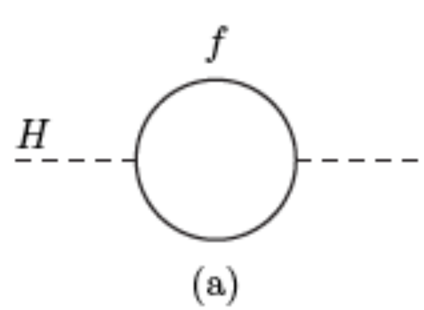
Spin is a fundamental property of elementary particles. Matter particles like electrons and quarks (protons and neutrons are each made up of three quarks) have spin ½, while force particles like photons, W,Z, and gluons have spin 1. The supersymmetric partners of electrons and quarks are called selectrons and squarks, and they have spin 0. The supersymmetric partners of the force particles are called the photino, Winos, Zino, and gluinos, and they have spin ½, so they might be matter particles. The lightest of these particles might be the photino. Whichever is lightest should be stable, so it is a natural candidate to be the dark matter WIMP. Supersymmetry does not predict its mass, but it must be more than 50 times as massive as the proton since it has not yet been produced at accelerators. But it will be produced soon at the LHC, if it exists and its mass is not above ~1 TeV!

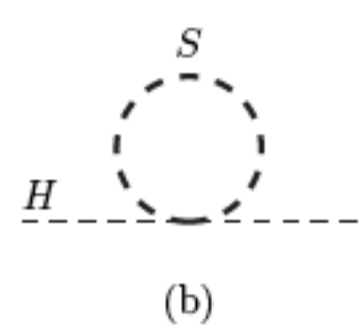
SUPERSYMMETRY

The only experimental evidence for supersymmetry is that running of coupling constants in the Standard Model (dashed lines in firgure) does not lead to Grand Unification of the weak, electromagnetic, and strong interactions, while with supersymmetry the three couplings all do come together at a scale just above 10^{16} GeV. The figure assumes the Minimal Supersymmetric Standard Model (MSSM) with sparticle masses between 250 GeV and 1 TeV.



Other arguments for SUSY include: helps unification of gravity since it controls the vacuum energy and moderates loop divergences (fermion and boson loop divergences cancel), solves the hierarchy problem, and naturally leads to DM with $\Omega \sim 1$.

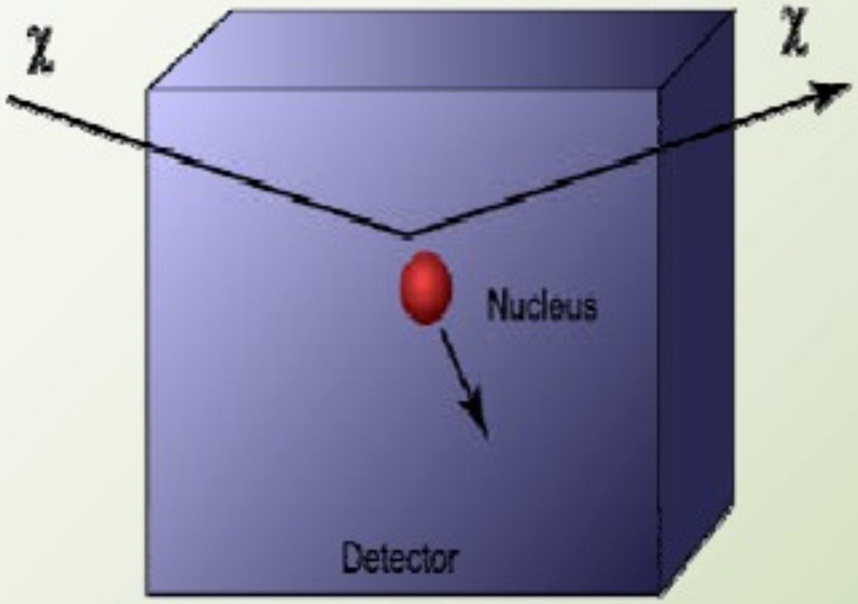




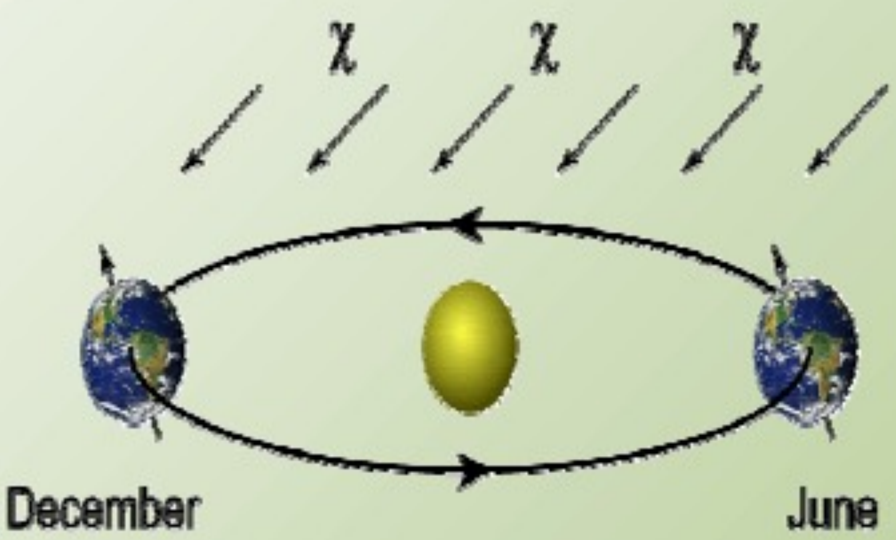
figs from S. P. Martin, A Supersymmetry Primer, arXiv:hep-ph/9709356v5

Experiments are Underway for Detection of WIMPs

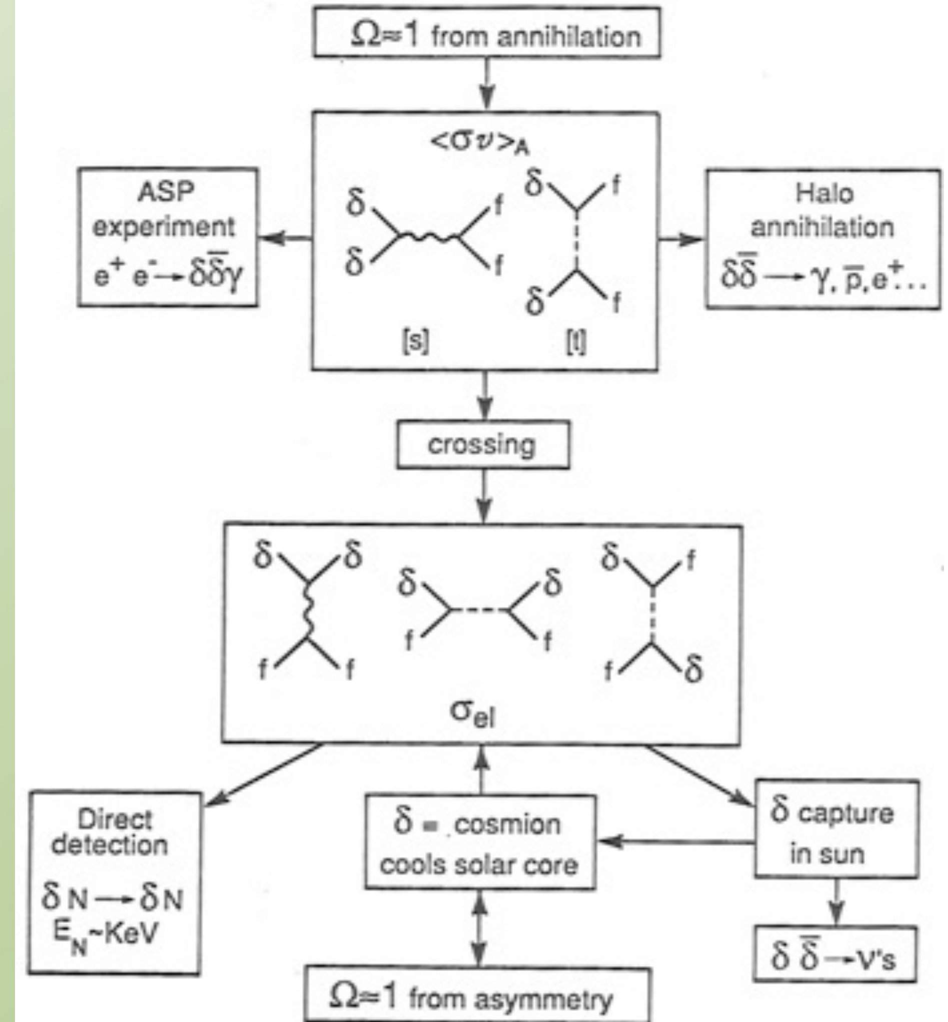
Direct detection - general principles

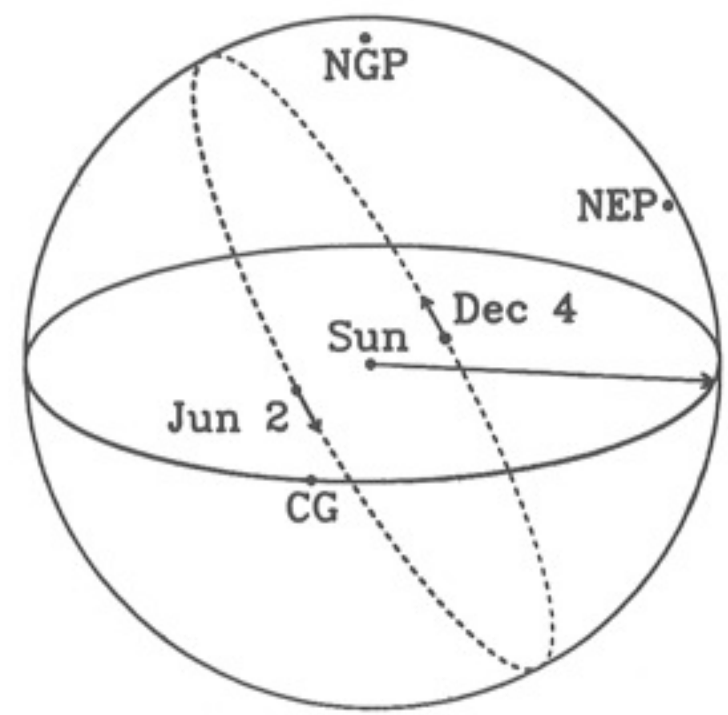


- WIMP + nucleus → WIMP + nucleus
- Measure the nuclear recoil energy
- Suppress backgrounds enough to be sensitive to a signal, or...



- Search for an annual modulation due to the Earth's motion around the Sun

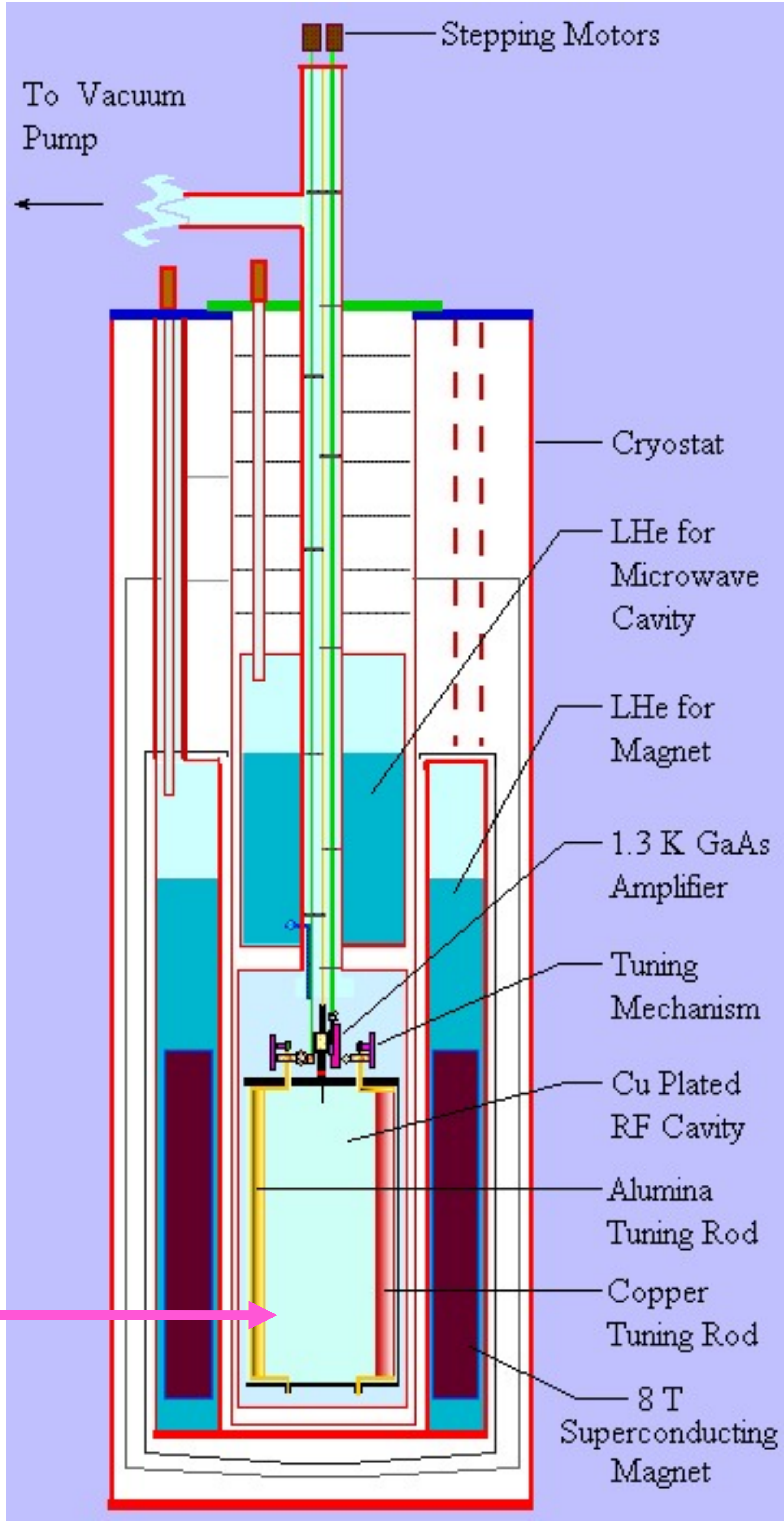




Primack, Seckel, & Sadoulet (1987)

and also AXIONs

The diagram at right shows the layout of the axion search experiment now underway at the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory. Axions would be detected as extra photons in the Microwave Cavity.



Types of Dark Matter

Ω_i represents the fraction of the critical density $\rho_c = 10.54\ h^2$ keV/cm^3 needed to close the Universe, where h is the Hubble constant H_0 divided by 100 km/s/*Mpc*.

Dark Matter Type	Fraction of Critical Density	Comment
Baryonic	$\Omega_b \sim 0.04$	about 10 times the visible matter
Hot	$\Omega_\nu \sim 0.001\text{–}0.1$	light neutrinos
Cold	$\Omega_c \sim 0.3$	most of the dark matter in galaxy halos

Dark Matter and Associated Cosmological Models

Ω_m represents the fraction of the critical density in all types of matter.
Ω_Λ is the fraction contributed by some form of "dark energy."

Acronym	Cosmological Model	Flourished
HDM	hot dark matter with $\Omega_m = 1$	1978–1984
SCDM	standard cold dark matter with $\Omega_m = 1$	1982–1992
CHDM	cold + hot dark matter with $\Omega_c \sim 0.7$ and $\Omega_\nu = 0.2\text{–}0.3$	1994–1998
ΛCDM	cold dark matter $\Omega_c \sim 1/3$ and $\Omega_\Lambda \sim 2/3$	1996–today

Joel Primack, *Beam Line*, Fall 2001

WHAT IS THE DARK MATTER?

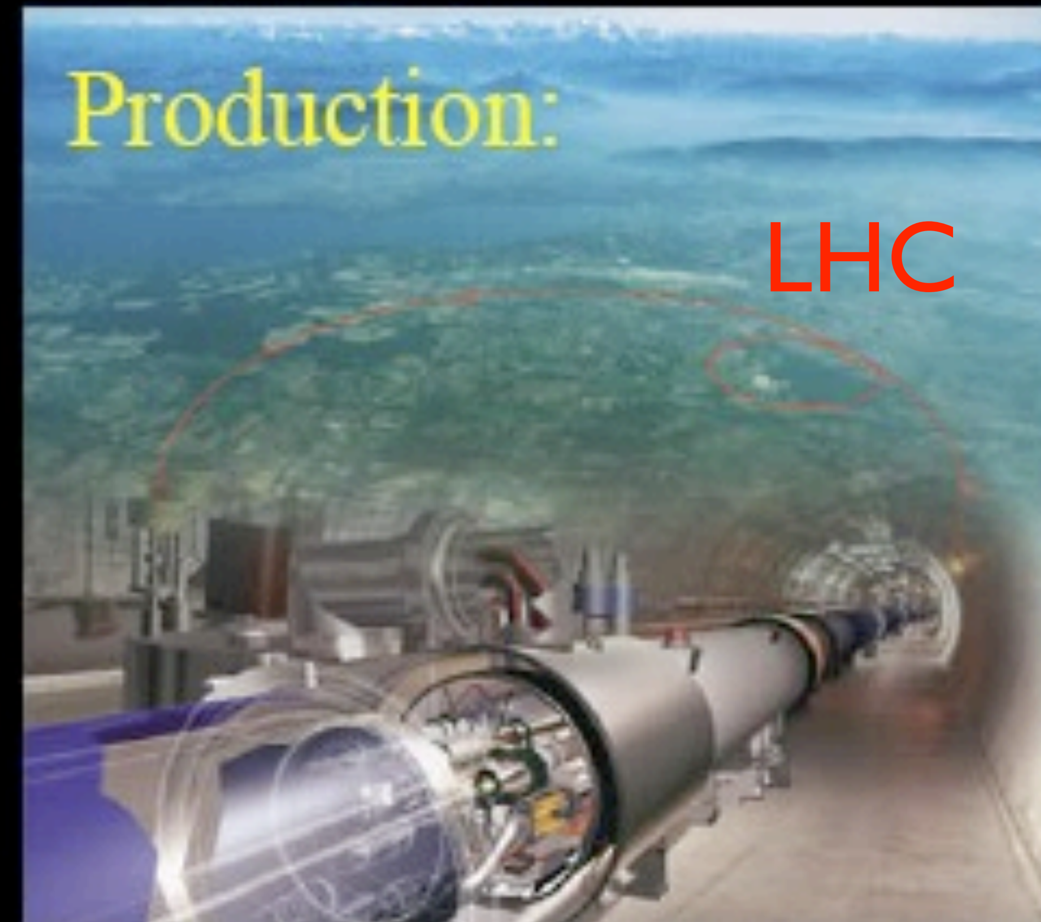
Prospects for DIRECT and INDIRECT detection of WIMPs are improving.

With many ongoing and upcoming experiments

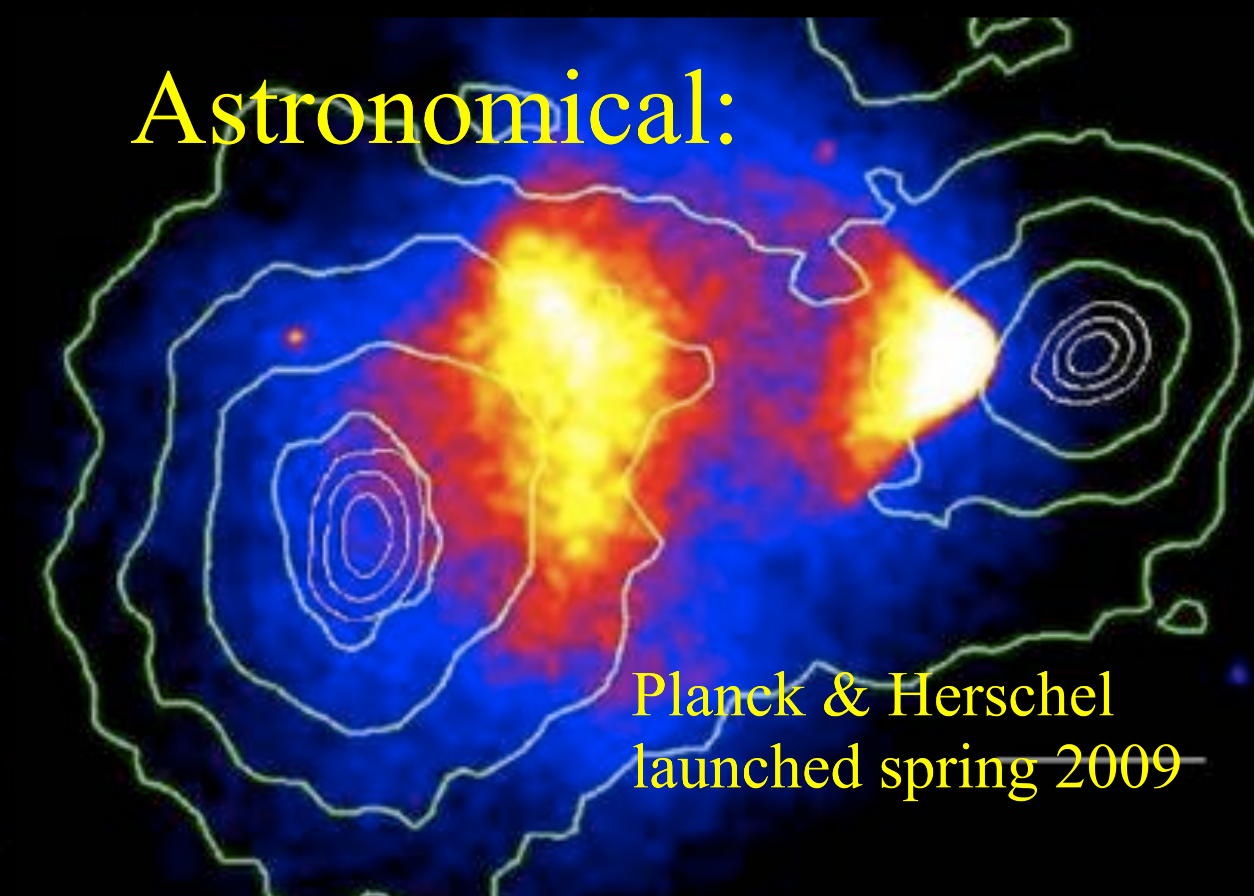
- Production at Large Hadron Collider
- Better CMB data from PLANCK
- Direct Detection
  - Spin Independent - CDMS-II, XENON100, LUX
  - Spin Dependent - COUPP, PICASSO
- Indirect detection via
  - Fermi and larger ACTs
  - PAMELA and AMS

-- there could well be a big discovery in the next few years!

Four roads to dark matter: *catch it, infer it, make it, weigh it*



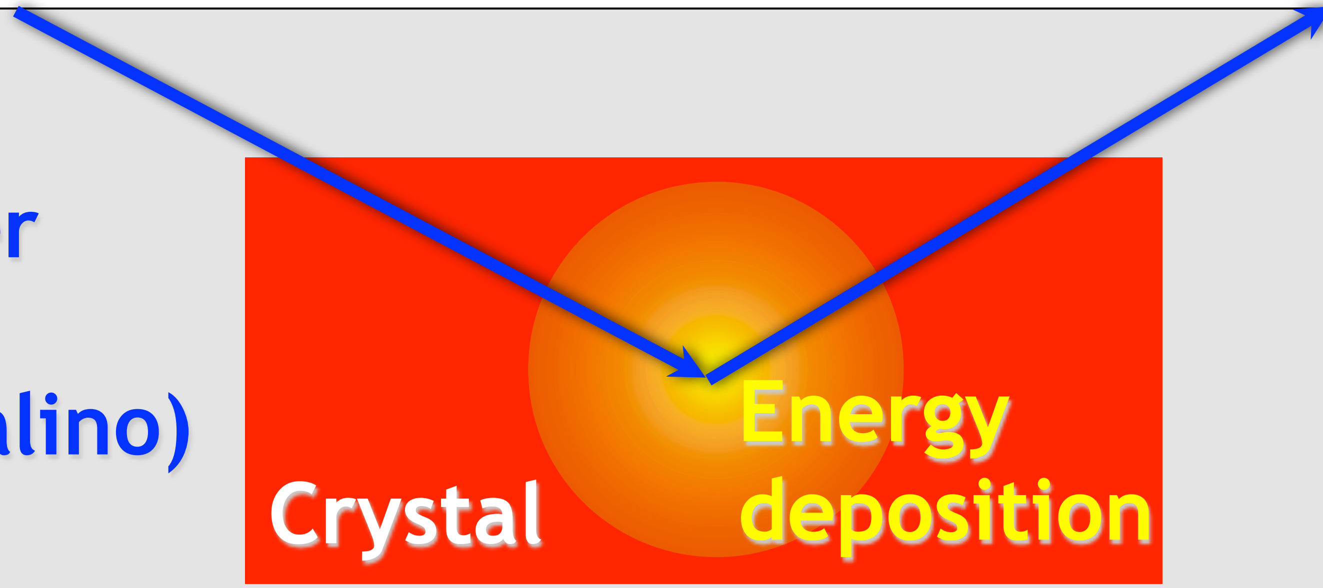
With all these upcoming experiments, the next few years will be very exciting!



Search for Neutralino Dark Matter

Direct Method (Laboratory Experiments)

Galactic dark matter particle (e.g.neutralino)

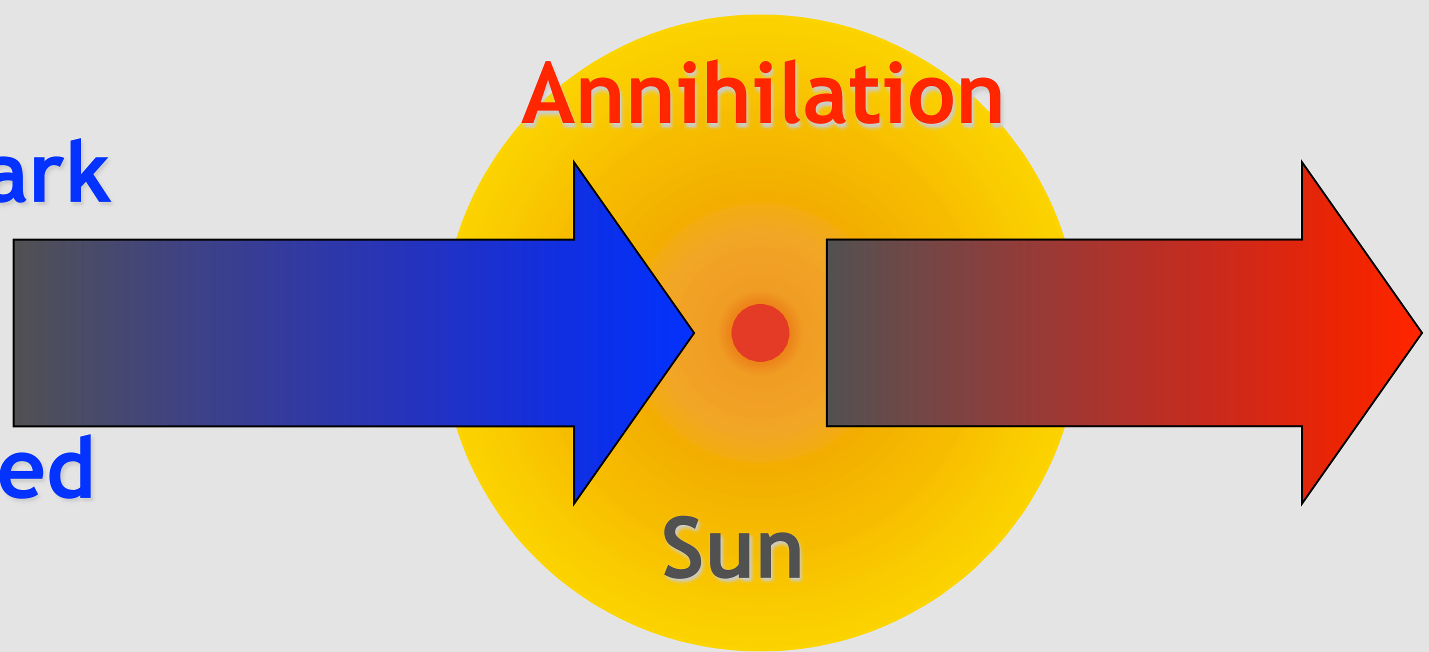


Recoil energy (few keV) is measured by

- Ionisation
- Scintillation
- Cryogenic

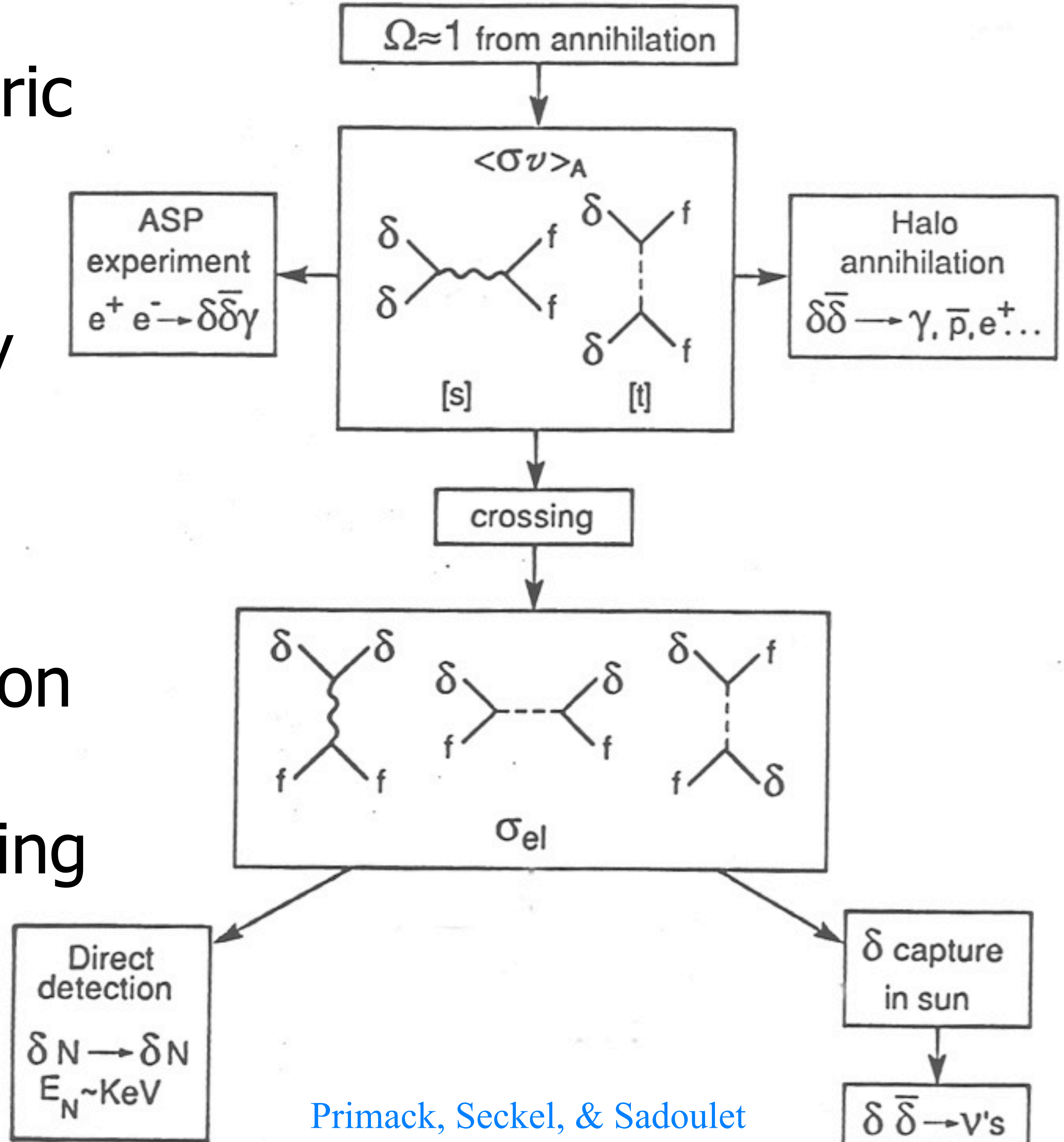
Indirect Method (Neutrino Telescopes)

Galactic dark matter particles are accreted



High-energy neutrinos (GeV-TeV) can be measured

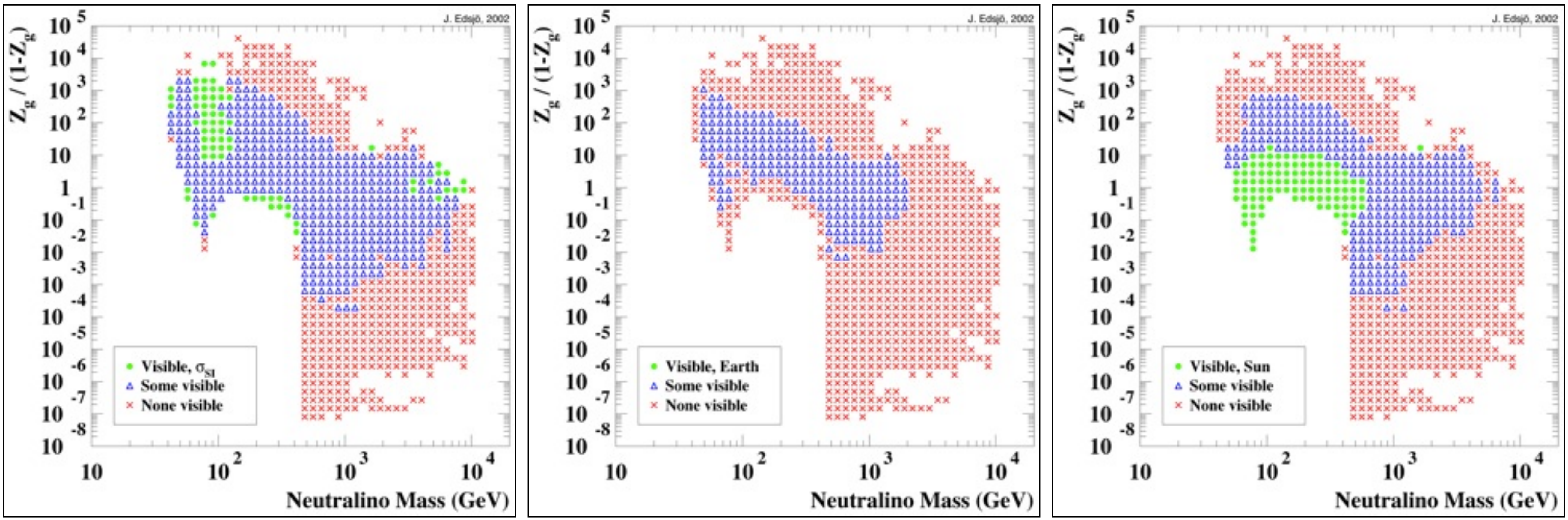
Supersymmetric WIMP (δ) annihilation is related by crossing to WIMP Direct Detection by Elastic Scattering

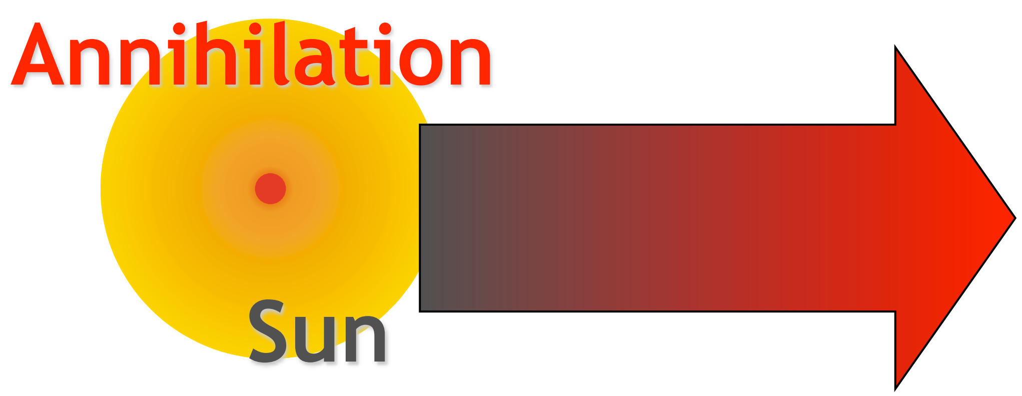


Primack, Seckel, & Sadoulet
Ann Rev Nucl Part Sci 1988

Future WIMP Sensitivities

Direct Detection	Indirect, km^3 Detector	
Genius/CRESST	Earth	Sun

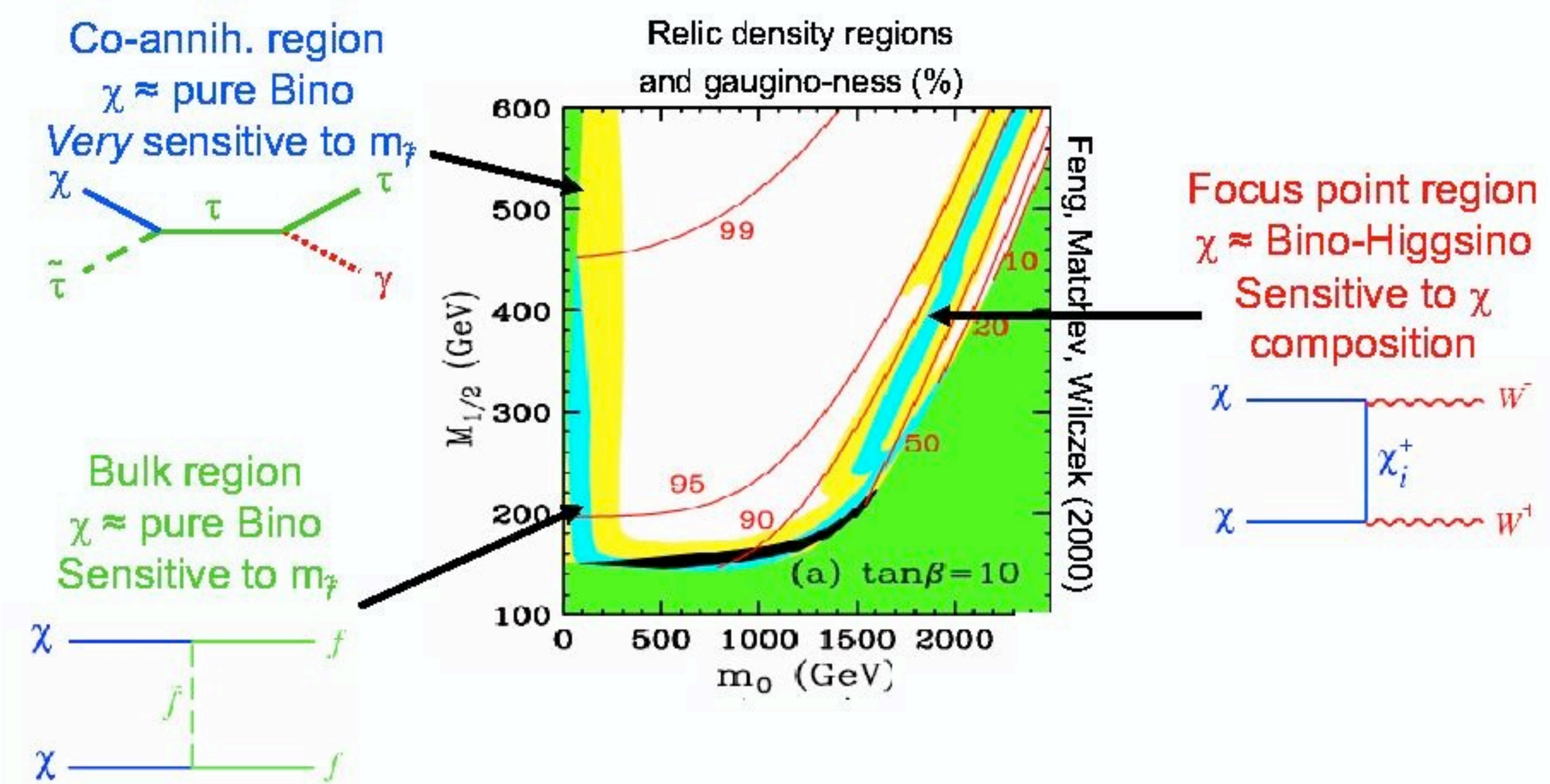




High-energy neutrinos (GeV-TeV) can be measured

Relic Density

- Cosmology: $\Omega_{DM} = 0.23$

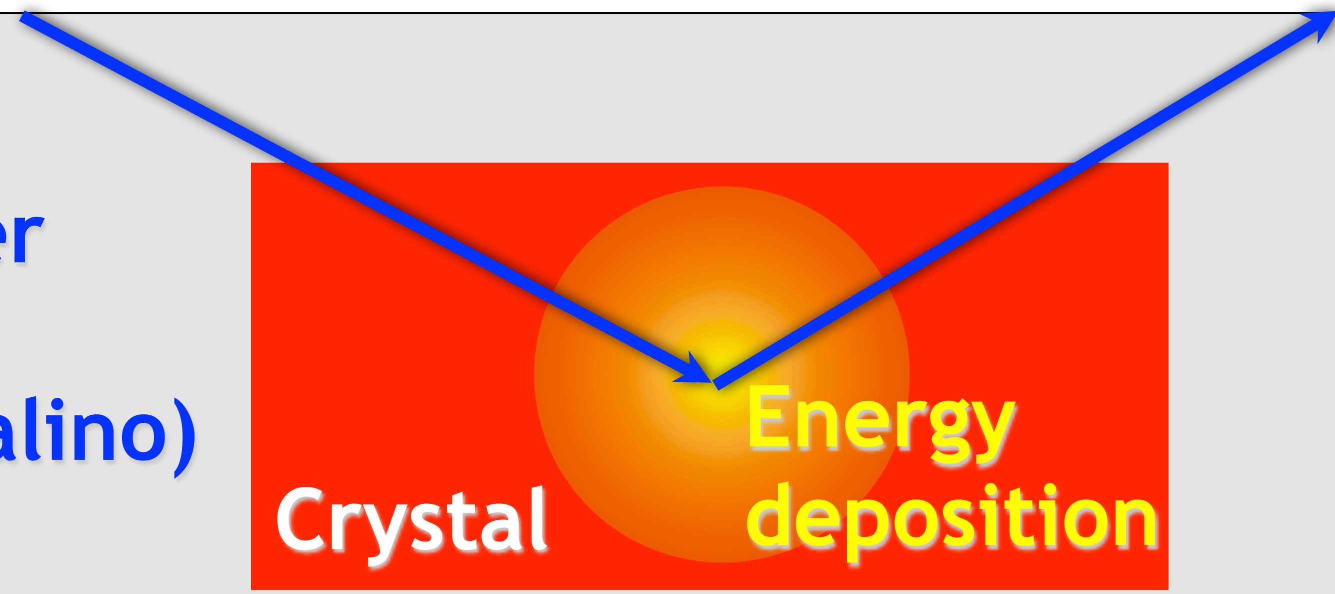


Jonathan Feng, SLAC Summer School 2003

Search for Neutralino Dark Matter

Direct Method (Laboratory Experiments)

Galactic dark matter particle (e.g.neutralino)



Recoil energy (few keV) is measured by
- Ionisation
- Scintillation
- Cryogenic

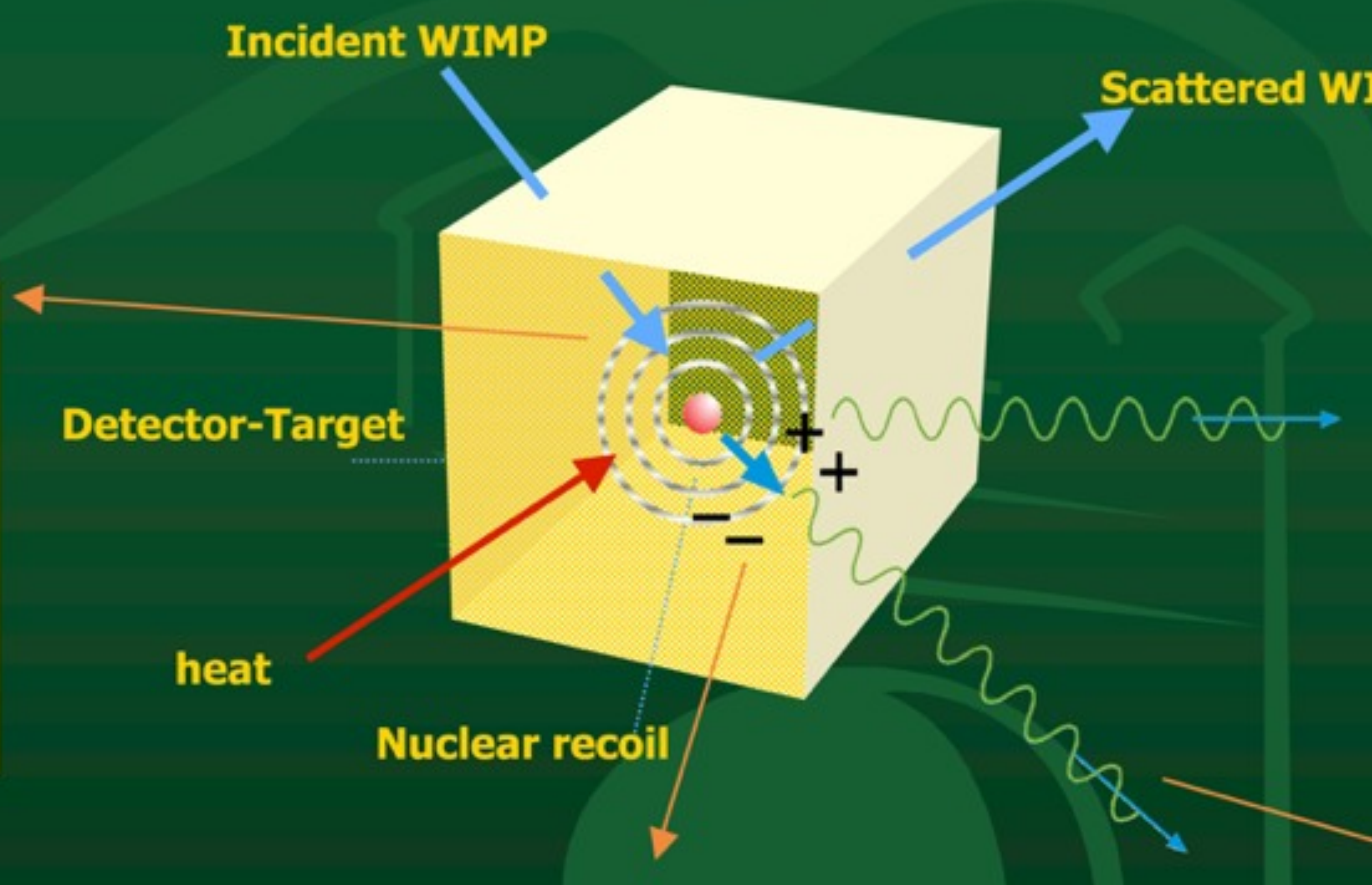
PHYSICAL REVIEW D VOLUME 31, NUMBER 12 15 JUNE 1985

Detectability of certain dark-matter candidates

Mark W. Goodman and Edward Witten
Joseph Henry Laboratories, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey 08544
(Received 7 January 1985)

We consider the possibility that the neutral-current neutrino detector recently proposed by Drukier and Stodolsky could be used to detect some possible candidates for the dark matter in galactic halos. This may be feasible if the galactic halos are made of particles with coherent weak interactions and masses $1-10^6$ GeV; particles with spin-dependent interactions of typical weak strength and masses $1-10^2$ GeV; or strongly interacting particles of masses $1-10^{13}$ GeV.

Direct Detection Methods



HEAT

Bolometers:
- MiDBD
- ROSEBUD-I
- CRESST-I
- CUORICINO

Metastable p.det:
- SSD Micrograins
- SDD Droplets

LIGHT

Xe-scintillators:
- DAMA-Xe
- ZEPLIN-I

NaI scintillators:
- NAIAD
- ANAIS
- DAMA, LIBRA
- ELEGANTS

HEAT+CHARGE
- CDMS
- EDELWEISS

CHARGE

Ge-experiments:
- H/M
- IGEX
- GENIUS-TF

Tracking Chambers:
- DRIFT

HEAT+LIGHT
- ROSEBUD-II
- CRESST-II

LIGHT+CHARGE
- ZEPLIN-II
- X-MASS