Beyond Dark Matter and Dark Energy

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70% dark energy

25% dark matter

5% ordinary matter

We think that 95% of the universe is dark. But what if gravity is tricking us? <u>General relativity</u>: gravity is the curvature of spacetime





Spacetime geometry is described by the metric $g_{\mu\nu}$. The curvature scalar $R[g_{\mu\nu}]$ is the most basic scalar quantity characterizing the curvature of spacetime at each point. The simplest <u>action</u> possible is thus

 $S = \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int R \, d^4 x + S_{\text{(matter)}}$ Varying with respect to $g_{\mu\nu}$ gives Einstein's equation: $\int G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}^{(\text{matter})}$

 $G_{\mu\nu}$ is the Einstein tensor, characterizing curvature, and $T_{\mu\nu}$ is the energy-momentum tensor of matter. Apply GR to the whole universe: uniform (homogeneous and isotropic) <u>space</u> expanding as a function of <u>time</u>.



Relative size at different times is measured by the scale factor a(t).

Now

Big Bang



Part of the curvature of spacetime is the curvature of <u>space</u> (part of it, but not the same thing).

In a universe which is the same everywhere, there are three possibilities for the "spatial curvature" κ :

 $\begin{array}{ll} \kappa > 0 & (\text{spherical}) \\ \kappa = 0 & (\text{flat}) \\ \kappa < 0 & (\text{saddle-shaped}) \end{array}$

Curvature diminishes as the universe expands: $ho_\kappa \propto 1/a^2$

We can use Einstein's equation to relate the expansion of the universe to spatial curvature and the energy density.



Expansion rate is measured by the Hubble parameter, $H = \dot{a}/a$. If we know κ , and ρ as a function of a, we can solve for the expansion history a(t).

Expansion dilutes matter (cold particles) and redshifts radiation.



So the energy density in matter simply goes down inversely with the increase in volume: $ho_{\rm M} \propto a^{-3}$ And the energy density in radiation diminishes more quickly as each photon loses energy: $ho_{\rm R} \propto a^{-4}$ Some matter is "ordinary" -- protons, neutrons, electrons, for that matter any of the particles of the Standard Model. But much of it is dark.

We can detect dark matter through its gravitational field - e.g. through gravitational lensing of background galaxies by clusters.

Whatever the dark matter is, it's not a particle we've discovered - it's something new.



[Kneib et al. 2003]

The Friedmann equation with <u>matter and radiation</u>:

$$H^{2} = \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a}\right)^{2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \left(\frac{\rho_{M0}}{a^{3}} + \frac{\rho_{R0}}{a^{4}}\right) - \frac{\kappa}{a^{2}}$$

Multiply by a^2 to get: $\dot{a}^2 \propto rac{
ho_{
m M0}}{a} + rac{
ho_{
m R0}}{a^2} + {
m const}$

If a is *increasing*, each term on the right is *decreasing*; we therefore predict the universe should be <u>decelerating</u> (\dot{a} decreasing).



But it isn't.

Type Ia supernovae are standardizable candles; observations of many at high redshift test the time evolution of the expansion rate.

Result: the universe is <u>accelerating</u>!

There seems to be a sort of energy density which <u>doesn't</u> decay away: "dark energy."



Dark Energy is characterized by:

- <u>smoothly distributed</u> through space
- varies slowly (if at all) with time
- negative pressure, w = p/ρ ≈ -1.
 (causes acceleration when w < -1/3)





(artist's impression of vacuum energy) Dark energy could be exactly constant through space and time: vacuum energy (i.e. the cosmological constant Λ). Or it could be dynamical (quintessence, etc.).

Consistency Checks

Fluctuations in the Cosmic Microwave Background peak at a characteristic length scale of 370,000 light years; observing the corresponding angular scale measures the geometry of space.





Evolution of large-scale structure from small early perturbations to today depends on expansion history of the universe.

Results: <u>need for dark</u> <u>energy confirmed</u>.



Concordance: 5% Ordinary Matter 25% Dark Matter 70% Dark Energy



But: this universe has issues. <u>One issue:</u> why is the vacuum energy so small?

We know that virtual particles couple to photons (e.g. Lamb shift); why not to gravity?





Naively: $\rho_{\text{vac}} = \infty$, or at least $\rho_{\text{vac}} = E_{\text{Pl}}/L_{\text{Pl}}^3 = 10^{120} \rho_{\text{vac}}^{(\text{obs})}$.

Could gravity be the culprit?

We <u>infer</u> the existence of dark matter and dark energy. Could it be a problem with general relativity? (Sure.)

Field theories (like GR) are characterized by :

- Degrees of Freedom (vibrational modes) -- number, spin.
- Propagation (massive/Yukawa, massless/Coulomb, etc).
- Interactions (coupling to other fields & themselves).

Inventing a new theory means specifying these things.

For example, in GR we have the graviton, which is:

- ✓ spin-2
- massless
- \checkmark coupled to $T_{\mu\nu}$



A scalar (spin-0) graviton would look like this:



Scalar-Tensor Gravity

Introduce a scalar field $\phi(x)$ that determines the strength of gravity. Einstein's equation

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T^{(m)}_{\mu\nu}$$

is replaced by

variabl

$$G_{\mu\nu} = f(\phi) \left[T^{(m)}_{\mu\nu} + T^{(\phi)}_{\mu\nu} \right]$$

$$f(\phi) = f(\phi) \left[T^{(m)}_{\mu\nu} + T^{(\phi)}_{\mu\nu} \right]$$
A se "Newton's constant" extra energy-momentum

from ϕ

The new field $\phi(x)$ is an extra degree of freedom; an independently-propagating scalar particle. The new scalar ϕ is sourced by planets and the Sun, distorting the metric away from Schwarzschild. It can be tested many ways, e.g. from the time delay of signals from the Cassini mission.

Experiments constrain the "Brans-Dicke parameter" ω to be

 ω > 40,000 , where ω = ∞ is GR.



Modified Newtonian Dynamics -- MOND

Milgrom (1984) noticed a remarkable fact: dark matter is only needed in galaxies once the acceleration due to gravity dips below $a_0 = 10^{-8} \text{ cm/s}^2 \sim cH_0$.



He proposed a phenomenological force law, MOND, in which gravity falls off more slowly when it's weaker:

$$F \propto \frac{1/r^2}{1/r}, \quad a > a_0, \\ 1/r, \quad a < a_0.$$

Bekenstein (2004) introduced *TeVeS*, a relativistic version of MOND featuring the metric, a fixed-norm vector U_{μ} , scalar field ϕ , and Lagrange multipliers η and λ :

$$S = \frac{1}{16\pi G} \int d^4x \left(R + \mathcal{L}_U + \mathcal{L}_\phi \right)$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}_U = -\frac{1}{2} K F^{\mu\nu} F_{\mu\nu} + \lambda (g^{\mu\nu} U_\mu U_\nu + 1)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\phi} = -\mu_0 \eta (g^{\mu\nu} - U^{\mu} U^{\nu}) \partial_{\mu} \phi \partial_{\nu} \phi - V(\eta)$$

$$V(\eta) = \frac{3\mu_0}{128\pi l_B^2} \left[\eta (4 + 2\eta - 4\eta^2 + \eta^3) + 2\ln^2(\eta - 1) \right]$$

Not something you'd stumble upon by accident.



[Clowe et al.]







Moral: Dark Matter is Real.

What about the expansion/acceleration of the universe? Big Bang Nucleosynthesis occurred when the universe was about one minute old, 10⁻⁹ its current size.



Relic abundances depend on the expansion rate at that time, so provide an excellent test of the validity of the Friedmann equation,

$$H^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho$$

not to mention the value of *G*.

Result:

Different expansion rates during BBN are allowed, but they must be very similar overall to the GR prediction.

Deviations from GR must only turn on rather late.



Explicit scenarios: Braneworlds

Extra dimensions can be (relatively) large if fields in the Standard Model are confined to a 3-brane.



 Arkani-Hamed, Dimopoulos, Dvali: compact XD's as large as 10⁻² cm across.

 Randall & Sundrum: an infinite XD with an appropriately curved (AdS) bulk.

Typically:

$$\Lambda_{\rm obs} = f(\lambda_{\rm brane}, \Lambda_{\rm bulk})$$

Can branes make the universe accelerate?

Dvali, Gabadadze, & Porrati (DGP): a flat infinite extra dimension, with gravity weaker on the brane; 5-d kicks in at large distances.



Difficult to analyze, but potentially observable new phenomena, both in cosmology and in the Solar System. (E.g., via lunar radar ranging.)

> [Dvali, Gabadadze & Porrati 2000; Deffayet 2000]

Self-acceleration in DGP cosmology

Imagine that somehow the cosmological constant is set to zero in both brane and bulk. The DGP version of the Friedmann equation is then

$$H^2 - \frac{H}{r_c} = \frac{8\pi G}{3}\rho$$

This exhibits self-acceleration: for $\rho = 0$, there is a de Sitter solution with $H = 1/r_c = \text{constant}$.

The acceleration is somewhat mild; equivalent to an equation-of-state parameter $w_{eff} \sim -0.7$ - on the verge of being inconsistent with present data. DGP gravity looks 5-d at distances larger than $r_c \sim H_0^{-1}$, and like 4-d GR for $r < r_* = (r_S r_c^{-2})^{1/3}$. There is a transition regime $r_* < r < r_c$ that looks like scalar-tensor gravity.



Note that r_* is big: for the Sun, r_* is about 10 kiloparsecs.

Perturbation evolution

As the universe expands, modes get stretched, and evolve from the 4-d GR regime into the scalar-tensor ("DGP") regime.



Scalar-tensor effects become important for longwavelength modes at late times. Bulk effects important!

[Deffayet 2001; Lue, Scoccimaro & Starkman 2004; Koyama & Maartens 2006]

Large-scale CMB anisotropies in DGP vs. ACDM:

The DGP evolution equations imply an effective "stress" that causes the scalar gravitational potentials Φ and Ψ to diverge. This enhances the Integrated Sachs-Wolfe effect, caused by photons moving through time-dependent potentials.

Upshot: DGP has larger large-scale anisotropy than GR (not what the data want).



[Sawicki & Carroll 2005; Song, Sawicki & Hu 2006]

Can we modify gravity purely in four dimensions, with an ordinary field theory, to make the universe accelerate at late times? Simplest possibility: replace

$$S = \int R \, d^4 x$$

with

$$S = \int \left(R - \frac{1}{R} \right) \, d^4x$$

[Carroll, Duvvuri, Trodden & Turner 2003]

The vacuum in this theory is not flat space, but an accelerating universe! But: the modified action brings a new tachyonic scalar degree of freedom to life.



This is secretly a scalar-tensor theory, dramatically ruled out by Solar-System tests of GR.

This is a generic problem.

- Weak-field GR is a theory of massless spin-2 gravitons. Their dynamics is essentially unique; it's hard to modify that behavior without new degrees of freedom.
- <u>Loophole 1</u>: somehow hide the scalar by giving it a location-dependent mass, either from matter effects ("chameleons") or other invariants $(R^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}R_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma})$.

[Khoury & Weltman 2003]

[Carroll, DeFelice, Duvvuri, Easson, Trodden & Turner 2006; Navarro & Van Acoleyen 2005; Mena, Santiago & Weller 2005]

• Loophole 2: the Friedmann equation, $H^2 = (8\pi G/3)\rho$, has nothing to do with gravitons; it's a constraint. We could change Einstein's equation from $G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$ to $G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G f_{\mu\nu}$, where $f_{\mu\nu}$ is some function of $T_{\mu\nu}$.

Yes we can: "Modified-Source Gravity."

We specify a new function $\psi(T)$ that depends on the trace of the energy-momentum tensor, $T = -\rho + 3p$, where ρ is the energy density and p is the pressure.

The new field equations take the form

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G \begin{bmatrix} e^{-2\psi}T^{(m)}_{\mu\nu} + T^{(\psi)}_{\mu\nu} \end{bmatrix}$$

density-dependent
rescaling of
Newton's constant
$$e^{-2\psi}T^{(m)}_{\mu\nu} + T^{(\psi)}_{\mu\nu}$$

$$\psi$$
 energy-momentum
tensor"; determined
in terms of $T^{(matter)}$.

Exactly like scalar-tensor theory, but with the scalar determined by the ordinary matter fields.

In the modified-source-gravity equation of motion

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G \left[e^{-2\psi} T^{(m)}_{\mu\nu} + T^{(\psi)}_{\mu\nu} \right]$$

the energy-momentum tensor for ψ looks like

$$T^{(\psi)}_{\mu\nu} = \left[(\nabla\psi)^2 + 2\nabla^2\psi - e^{-2\psi}U(\psi) \right] g_{\mu\nu} -2\nabla_{\mu}\psi\nabla_{\nu}\psi + 2\nabla_{\mu}\nabla_{\nu}\psi$$

 $U(\psi)$ is a "potential" that defines $\psi(T)$ via $rac{dU}{d\psi} - 4U(\psi) = -T$

So the metric ultimately depends only on the matter energy-momentum - no new degrees of freedom.

[Flanagan 2005; Carroll, Sawicki, Silvestri & Trodden 2006]

Cosmology in modified-source gravity

The effective Friedmann equation is



MSG changes late-time evolution of perturbations (cf. DGP).



Not especially promising! But once again, nonlinearities make it difficult to say anything definitive.

The lesson: we can test GR on cosmological scales, by comparing kinematic probes of DE to dynamical ones, and looking for consistency.

Kinematic probes [only sensitive to a(t)]:

- Standard candles (distance vs. redshift)
- Baryon oscillations (angular distances)

Dynamical probes [sensitive to *a*(*t*) and growth factor]:

- Weak lensing
- Cluster counts (SZ effect)

[cf. Lue & Starkman; Ishak, Upadhye & Spergel; Linder; Albrecht et al., Dark Energy Task Force Report]



<u>Outlook</u>

- Observational evidence is conclusive that something is happening - dark stuff, or worse.
- Dark matter definitely exists; we detect gravity where the ordinary matter is not.
- Dark energy is less well understood; the data demand something, and modified-gravity models are not yet very promising.
- 95% of the universe is dark -- let's keep an open mind.



Scalar-tensor theories don't naturally make the universe accelerate. But they can play a role by affecting observations the equation-of-state parameter w, which relates the pressure p to the energy density ρ :

$$p = w
ho \qquad
ho \propto a^{-3(1+w)}$$

For matter, w = 0; for constant vacuum energy, w = -1.

We never measure *w* directly; it is just a way to parameterize the acceleration:

$$w_{\text{eff}} = -\left(\frac{1}{1-\Omega_{\text{M}}}\right)\left(1+\frac{2}{3}\frac{\dot{H}}{H^2}\right)$$



For example, *w* < -1 is naively a disaster: negativeenergy particles, dramatic instability of empty space.

But the time-varying G of scalar-tensor theories can trick you into thinking that w < -1, even when it's not.

$$w_{ ext{eff}} = w - lpha \dot{\phi} - eta rac{dV}{d\phi}$$

However, ϕ is very constrained by observations. So to get an appreciable effect, we need small ϕ and large $dV/d\phi$; that requires substantial fine-tuning.



[Carroll, Hoffman & Trodden 2003; Carroll, De Felice & Trodden 2004]

Can branes prevent the universe from accelerating?

Self-tuning is an attempt to solve the cosmological constant problem (why is Λ so small?) using branes.



If we put a scalar field ϕ in the bulk, with a carefully-chosen coupling to matter on the brane, the observed cosmological constant Λ_{obs} will be zero for any value of the vacuum energy on the brane λ_{brane} .

<u>But</u>: naked singularities, hidden tunings, other issues.

[Arkani-Hamed et al. 2000; Kachru et al. 2000] How do self-tuning branes know to ignore vacuum energy, but not other forms of energy?

General answer: modify the Friedmann eq. so that

$$H^2 = f(\rho, p)(\rho + p)$$

Vacuum has $p = -\rho$, so we get H = 0.

More specific answer in self-tuning brane models:

$$H^2 \propto (
ho + p)^2$$

Intriguing, but dramatically ruled out by observations. (Big-Bang Nucleosynthesis, etc.)

[Carroll & Mersini 2001]

Dark Matter and CMB temperature anisotropies ACDM obviously fits CMB data very well. More importantly: DM plays a crucial role in determing the relative peak heights (boosts odd-numbered peaks).



ACDM vs. Bekenstein/MOND



Without any dark matter: hopeless. But with $\Omega_v = 0.17$, MOND does pretty well. The third peak can distinguish between MOND and LCDM once and for all.