

higher education & training

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Dark matter or "dark matter"?

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Dark matter is a catchword used to refer to a range of probably related phenomena, most notable of which being:

- ➢ Galaxy rotation curves are non-Keplerian if computed according to the "luminous" mass distributions
- ➢ Stars' velocity dispersion estimates in elliptical galaxies do not match the predicted velocity dispersion from the observed mass distribution
- \triangleright The gravitational lensing is stronger than if it were caused by the observed mass
- \triangleright The CMB spectrum has not only 1st and 2nd peak (corresponding, respectively, to the overall curvature of the universe and visible matter density distribution) but also the 3^d peak
- ➢ Visible matter alone can't explain the observed structure formation of galaxies and clusters
- \triangleright Type Ia supernova distance measurements indicate the missing component in the energy density

I. Silly questions

Here comes the first question (not a silly question yet):

What is dark matter's nature and micro structure?

Two views:

- 1) DM is a corpuscular matter, i.e., it consists of relativistic particles
- 2) There is no (corpuscular) DM per se, but the gravity must be modified

…There's a relation* between these explanations:

 Δ (Φ_{observed} - Φ_{luminous}) = 4 π *G* ρ_{DM}

(**in the relativistic case, replace the Poisson eq with Einstein eqs*) but one must either specify the microscopic structure of ρ_{DM} or explain why $\Phi_{\text{observed}} \neq \Phi_{\text{luminous}}$

Problem #1 Observational

Which particle? (also not a silly question yet)

None of known particles (described by the current Standard Model of particle physics) seems to be a strong candidate for a DM particle

And none from relativistic theories outside or beyond SM:

light bosons (incl. little Higgs and light scalars)

weakly interacting massive particle (WIMPs)

axions

sterile neutrinos

SUSY particles, strings, higher-dimensional effects

geons

primordial black holes

Problem #2 Axiomatic

What is a particle? (the first silly question!)

Classical physics: "A particle is a small localized object, lump of matter"

Non-relativistic QM: "A particle is a wave of the probability of detecting a particle"

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Relativistic QFT (incl. SM): "A particle is an irrep of the Lorentz group"

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Relativistic QFT's workflow: we introduce quantum field, write the Lagrangian (using Lorentz symmetry and its irreps), define the perturbation theory $\&$ Feynman diagram rules \Rightarrow here comes particle interpretation

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(… *this is where fundamental problems begin*)

For example, the diagram "an electron emits a photon":

- \triangleright one elementary point particle (by definition!) instantaneously produces another particle (*SQ*: where was the photon *before* the emission event)
- \triangleright spin & statistics: $\frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} + 1$, $F \rightarrow F + B$, EPR paradoxes
- ➢ zoom-in issue (UV divergencies): infinite values occur in higher-order perturbation terms (in some theories, renormalization procedures combine and replace infinities with experimentally known numbers)

In relativistic particle theory, the notion of a *particle* is mathematically ill-defined, physically obscure and computationally incomplete

Problem #1 Axiomatic (lots of SQ's)

What is the (gravitational) interaction, how do massive bodies "talk" to each other? Does the general relativity (GR) complete the theory of gravity?

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For starters, GR is not a quantum theory. Can we quantize GR?

Formally, yes (metric tensor as a dynamical variable, Hamiltonian form of EFE (ADM), LQG quantization or quantization with constraints *a la* Dirac)

…but

Such quantized GR is not even renormalizable, therefore infinite values of observables (e.g., graviton-graviton scattering cross-section etc.).

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Moreover, if you think about it:

Spacetime is, by definition, a set of "rods" and clocks for measuring distances and times between events $\Rightarrow S$. is a part of measuring apparatus

Problem #2 Useless multeity

- \triangleright Tons of mutually excluding relativistic MG theories
- ➢ MG theories solve one or two particular problem but not all
- ➢ MG theories don't have quantum origins (or even any justifications at all, other than "mathematical beauty")
- ➢ MG theories inherit fundamental issues of GR: quantization, nonconserved EMT, self-energy divergences, spacetime singularities

When it comes to the completely relativistic approach to the DM problem, neither particle nor MG pictures are flawless.

Is there a more general theory, which would also include GR as a subset?

II. Quantum Liquids: Introduction

Q: What is quantum Bose liquid?

A: It is a quantum fluid that consists of the particles that obey the quantum Bose-Einstein statistics (not Fermi–Dirac, not Maxwell–Boltzmann); these particle are called bosons;

spin-statistics theorem: bosons must have integer spin;

examples: BEC, superfluids, etc.

Example 1: **Bose-Einstein condensate**

QM: same-species Bose particles are indistinguishable; particle-wave duality

BEC is an extended continuous quantum object (not anymore a cloud of particles)

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Example 2: **Superfluid**

Superfluid is a quantum Bose liquid in which dissipative fluctuations are suppressed

no dissipations \Rightarrow no friction/drag force \Rightarrow macroscopically behaves like a perfect or ideal fluid

Landau shape for the excitations' spectrum is a criterion

Modern theory of quantum Bose liquids

(BEC and superfluids)

$$
\left[-i\hbar \partial_t - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \vec{\nabla}^2 + V_{\text{ext}}(\vec{x}, t) + F(|\Psi|^2)\right] \Psi = 0 \qquad \langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle = N
$$
\nwhere\n
$$
F(\rho) = b \ln \left(\rho/\bar{\rho}\right) + \kappa_1 \frac{\rho}{\bar{\rho}} + \kappa_2 \left(\frac{\rho}{\bar{\rho}}\right)^2 \qquad \rho = n = |\Psi|^2
$$
\nlogarithmic\nGross-Pitaevskii Ginzburg-Sobyanin term (vacuum?) term (2-body) term (3-body)

Advantages of including the logarithmic term:

- \checkmark Supported by statistical mechanics (strong interaction: when $K/U \ll 1$)
- \checkmark Non-perturbative
- \checkmark Takes into account vacuum effects
- \checkmark Fits experimental data (+ resolves some puzzles)

08:09

III. Superfluid Vacuum Theory

Superfluid vacuum theory (SVT) is a theory of physical vacuum, where vacuum is the superfluid in 3D Euclidean space, which generates 4D curved spacetime and associated phenomena

SVT is a viable candidate for a post-relativistic theory, because:

- \triangleright it is quantum by construction (no anomalies or divergencies found)
- \triangleright it generalizes GR
- \triangleright it is a part of physics we already know (condensed matter)

SVT is also a framework for models of quantum gravity

Superfluid-spacetime correspondence

Propagation of small perturbations inside a 3D non-relativistic inviscid quantum fluid (superfluid), described by logarithmic SE for wavefunction $\Psi = \sqrt{\rho} \exp(i \mathcal{S})$ is analogous to:

propagation of probe particles along geodesics of a 4D pseudo-Riemannian spacetime, whose $(- + + +)$ metric is given by:

$$
g_{\mu\nu} = (g^{\mu\nu})^{-1} \propto \frac{\rho}{\sqrt{A_b}} \begin{pmatrix} -N^2 & \vdots & -\mathcal{D}\partial_j \mathcal{S} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ -\mathcal{D}\partial_i \mathcal{S} & \vdots & \delta_{ij} \end{pmatrix}
$$

where

$$
N^2 \equiv A_b - \mathcal{D}^2 (\nabla \mathcal{S})^2 = \frac{\mathcal{D}}{2} \left(\partial_t \mathcal{S} + \frac{1}{\hbar} V \right) - \frac{\mathcal{D}}{\hbar} b \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\rho / \rho_0 \right) \right] - \frac{\mathcal{D}^2}{4} \frac{\Delta \rho}{\rho}
$$

\n
$$
A_b = A - \frac{\mathcal{D}}{\hbar} b, \ A = \frac{\mathcal{D}^2}{4} \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\nabla \rho}{\rho} \right), \ B = \frac{\mathcal{D}^2}{4} \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\nabla \delta \rho}{\rho} \right),
$$

Einstein Field Eqs: Valid in the "phononic" (low-momenta) limit of SVT

$$
T_{\mu\nu}^{(\mathrm{ind})} \equiv \kappa^{-1} \left[R_{\mu\nu} (g) - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R(g) \right]
$$

They must be interpreted not as the diff equations for the unknown metric, but rather as an expression for the induced stress-energy tensor of the effective matter to which the small fluctuations and test particles couple:

$$
SF-space time\n\nSF dynamics \to \psi \longrightarrow g_{\mu\nu} \to R_{\mu\nu} \to T_{\mu\nu}
$$

In practice: you know EMT and want to derive Ψ, hence the reverse order; the reversed SF-spacetime correspondence fulfils the quantization of gravity

Thus, in SVT, spacetime is an emergent phenomenon, EFE and related concepts represent an approximate description;

empty space's symmetries are no longer relevant (we don't have empty space)

Two types of observers:

 \triangleright R(elativistic) O. operates with small vacuum excitations only, and "sees" only spacetime $g_{\mu\nu}$ and matter $T_{\mu\nu}^{(ind)} \equiv \kappa^{-1} | R_{\mu\nu}(g) - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R(g) |$

 \triangleright F(ull) O. observes a quantum SF in Euclidean space

Derivation of gravitational potential and speed of light (*skip tech details*)

GR: in the weak gravity limit, a lapse function can be written in the form

$$
N^2 = c_{(0)}^2 + 2\Phi
$$

therefore, we can associate:

$$
\Phi \sim -\frac{b}{4m} \ln \left(|\Psi|^2 / \rho_0 \right) - \frac{[b]}{2m}
$$
 gravitational potential

$$
c_{(0)}^2 \sim \frac{\mathcal{D}\,\omega}{2} - \frac{b_0}{2m} = \frac{1}{2m} (\hbar \omega - b_0)
$$
 speed of light (squared)

It is worth summarizing the built-in ambiguities: (i) the physical metric is derived up to a conformal factor, due to the remaining choice of a physical frame (units), (ii) for a given conformal frame, values Φ and $c_{(0)}$ are defined up to a factor, due to time coordinate transformation, (iii) the coupling b is defined up to a factor, due to the $U(1)$ symmetry of the original wave equation, metric signature choice and coordinate transformations, and (iv) values Φ and $c_{(0)}^2$ are defined up to, respectively, additive function and additive constant, due to some terms being neglected because of various small density perturbation approximations.

$$
ds^2\approx-c_{(0)}^2\Bigg[1+{2\Phi(r)\over c_{(0)}^2}\Bigg]\,dt^2+{dr^2\over 1+2\Phi(r)/c_{(0)}^2}+R^2(r)d\Omega_{(2)}^2\Bigg]
$$

$$
\Phi = -\frac{1}{m}V_{\text{eff}}(\boldsymbol{r}, t) = \frac{1}{m}\left(b_0 - \frac{q}{r^2}\right)\ln\left(\frac{|\Psi_{\text{vac}}(\boldsymbol{r}, t)|^2}{\bar{\rho}}\right)
$$

Generic ansatz for the amplitude of SF's wavefunction

$$
|\Psi_{\text{vac}}| = \sqrt{\overline{\rho}} \left(\frac{r}{\overline{\ell}}\right)^{\chi_0/2} P(r) \exp\left(-\frac{a_2}{2\overline{\ell}^2}r^2 + \frac{a_1}{2\overline{\ell}}r + \frac{a_0}{2}\right)
$$

Or (when approximating *P*(*r*)):

$$
|\Psi_{\text{vac}}|^2 \approx \bar{\rho} \, \exp\left[-\frac{a_2}{\bar{\ell}^2}r^2 + \frac{a_1}{\bar{\ell}}r + \chi \ln\left(\frac{r}{\bar{\ell}}\right) + a_0\right]
$$

where a's are some constants, and $\bar{\ell} = (m/\bar{\rho})^{1/3}$ or $\hbar/\sqrt{mb_0}$ is a characteristic length scale chosen.

If an exact solution is known (req. boundary conditions, state's specification, etc), then the *a*-constants are known exactly. Our case: they are not known theoretically but can be bound empirically.

Substituting this ansatz into the expression of induced potential, we obtain the latter as a sum of seven terms:

$$
\Phi(r) = \Phi_{\rm smi}(r) + \Phi_{\rm RN}(r) + \Phi_{\rm N}(r) \n+ \Phi_{\rm gal}(r) + \Phi_{\rm mgl}(r) + \Phi_{\rm dS}(r) + \Phi_0
$$

where

 $ds^2 \approx -c_{(0)}^2 \left[1 + \frac{2\Phi(r)}{c_{(0)}^2}\right] dt^2 + \frac{dr^2}{1 + 2\Phi(r)/c_{(0)}^2} + R^2(r)d\Omega_{(2)}^2$

Induced gravitational potential has a multi-scale structure:

$$
\Phi = -\frac{1}{m}V_{\text{eff}}(\boldsymbol{r}, t) = \frac{1}{m}\left(b_0 - \frac{q}{r^2}\right)\ln\left(\frac{|\Psi_{\text{vac}}(\boldsymbol{r}, t)|^2}{\bar{\rho}}\right)
$$

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$$

where

KNOWN / PREDICTED

KNOWN/PREDICTED

 $\Phi_{\rm RN}(r) = -\frac{a_0 q}{m} \frac{1}{r^2} = -\zeta_{a_0 q} c_b^2 \frac{L_{\rm RN}^2}{r^2}$, \leftarrow Reissner-Nordstrom (abelian charge *generation*) $\Phi_{\rm N}(r) = -\frac{a_1q}{m\bar{r}}\frac{1}{r} = -\frac{GM}{r}$, \leftarrow Newton / Schwarzschild (*grav mass generation*) $\Phi_{\rm smi}(r) = -\frac{\chi q}{m} \frac{\ln \left(r/\ell \right)}{r^2} = -\zeta_{\chi q} c_b^2 \frac{L_{\rm smi}^2 \ln \left(r/\ell \right)}{r^2}$ \leftarrow Strong Gravity (hierarchy *problem resolved*) $\Phi_{\rm gal}(r) = \frac{\chi b_0}{\chi} \ln \left(r/\bar{\ell} \right) = c_b^2 \chi \ln \left(r/\bar{\ell} \right), \quad \text{Galactic scale (flat rotation curves,}$ *acts as DM*) $\Phi_{\rm dS}(r) = -\frac{a_2b_0}{m\bar{F}^2}r^2 = -c_b^2\frac{r^2}{L^2r^2}$, \leftarrow de Sitter (*accelerating expansion*, *acts as DE*) $\Phi_{\text{mgl}}(r) = \frac{a_1 b_0}{m \bar{\ell}} r = \zeta_{a_1} c_b^2 \frac{r}{L_{\text{mgol}}}, \quad \leftarrow \text{Large/Extra Galactic scale} (crossover to$ *non-flat RCs, contributes to expansion*) $\Phi_0 = \frac{1}{m} \left(a_0 b_0 + \frac{a_2 q}{\bar{a}_2} \right) \qquad \leftarrow$ Gauge term?

where $c_b = \sqrt{\frac{b_0}{m}}$, $GM = \frac{a_1q}{m\overline{\ell}}$, $L_{\text{smi}} = \sqrt{\frac{|\chi q|}{b_0}}$, $L_{\text{mic}} = \sqrt{\frac{|a_0q|}{b_0}}$, $L_{\text{mgl}} = \frac{\overline{\ell}}{|a_1|} = \frac{|q|}{mGM}$, $L_{\cos} = \frac{\overline{\ell}}{\sqrt{a_2}}$, $L_{\chi} = \frac{\chi\overline{\ell}}{a_1} = \frac{\chi q}{mGM}$

IV. Example: Alternative to DM

Galactic rotation curves

Rotation curves (RC) are rotation velocities as functions of a distance from a gravitating center.

According to the Newton's theory of gravity, rotation curves of free-falling non-relativistic test particles must have a Keplerian form <=> velocity must be inversely proportional to the square root of distance.

However, numerous astronomical observations, of both stars and luminous gas in galaxies, show significant deviations from this behaviour:

- ➢ RC's are Keplerian-like (Newton-driven) in inner regions of galaxies
- \triangleright RC's are essentially non-Keplerian in the middle and mid-outer regions (sometimes having flat shape, but not necessarily so)

Is this non-Keplerian behaviour due to DM or SVT-induced multi-scale gravity? If latter, then what does SVT predict for galactic RC?

$$
v(R) \approx \sqrt{v_N^2 + \frac{b_0}{m} R \frac{d}{dR} \left\{ \chi \ln\left(\frac{R}{\overline{\ell}}\right) + \ln\left[(k_2 R^2 + k_1 R + 1)^2\right] \right\} + \tilde{a}_1 R - \tilde{a}_2 R^2}
$$

\nFlat regime
\nwhere
\n
$$
v_N^2 = \frac{4}{3} v_{\rm HI}^2 + v_\star^2 = \frac{4}{3} v_{\rm HI}^2 + \frac{GM_\star}{2h_R^3} R^2 B \left(\frac{R}{2h_R}\right),
$$
\n
$$
v_\chi^2 = \frac{1}{2} R \frac{d}{dR} \left[c_{(0)}^2 \beta_\chi^2 \ln\left(\frac{R}{\overline{\ell}}\right)\right] = \frac{\chi b_0}{m},
$$

where M_{\star} and h_R are, respectively, the total gravitational mass and surface brightness' scale length of the stellar disc, $B(x) = I_0(x)K_0(x) - I_1(x)K_1(x)$, $I_n(x)$ and $K_n(x)$ are modified Bessel functions of the first and second kind, respectively, and the mass ratio between helium and neutral hydrogen (HI) is assumed to be $1/3$. Notice that the contribution (4) is independent of R , which proves our earlier statement about the relation between the FRC phenomenon and logarithmic term in the induced metric. Thus, a rotation curve would be asymptotically flat if $a_1 = a_2 = 0$ identically, while the Keplerian term v_N^2 rapidly decreases as R grows, thus making the term (4) to predominate in Eq. (2) at large R. However, if either or both of a_1 and a_2 are not zero then we have what we call the *asymptotically non-flat behaviour* of a rotation curve.

Fitted 15 galaxies from the THINGS catalogue. Here's some examples:

Least-squares fits (**solid** curves), black **dots** are mean values from THINGS, dotted curves are contribution of gas, dashed curves are total contribution of gas & stellar disc

Notice: SVT fits not only flat-type galaxies with but also other non-Keplerian ones

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