

Astrophysics of Collapsing and Colliding Axion Stars

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Big Picture

Axions are light scalar fields: in QCD, masses $10^{-6} - 10^{-2}$ eV.

$$\text{Interaction potential } V(\Phi) = m^2 f^2 \left[1 - \cos\left(\frac{\Phi}{f}\right) \right]$$

Axion Star (ASt): macroscopic condensate of low-energy axions

- Hydrodynamic equation of state
- Supported by balance of
 - self-gravity
 - uncertainty (kinetic) pressure
 - self-interactions
- $N \sim 10^{60}$ axions, sphere of radius R
- Non-relativistic wavefunction $\psi(r)$
- QM coordinate / momentum uncertainty

Want to know

- Macroscopic properties; Stability
- ?: If unstable, what happens during collapse?
- ?: What can trigger collapse?

Variational Method: Minimize Axion Star Energy

Self-interaction energy of an ASt, in the non-relativistic limit:

$$W(\psi) = -m^2 f^2 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k a_k \left[\frac{\psi^* \psi}{2 m f^2} \right]^{k+2}$$

The total energy

$$E(\psi) = \int d^3r \left[\overbrace{\frac{|\nabla\psi|^2}{2m}}^{\text{kinetic}} + \overbrace{\frac{1}{2} V_{grav}(|\psi|^2)}^{\text{gravitational}} + \overbrace{W(\psi)}^{\text{self-interaction}} \right]$$

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We make an ansatz for the wavefunction $\psi(r)$ and compute E :

Rescale: Energy e , Radius ρ , and Particle number n

$$e(\rho) \equiv \frac{E(\rho)}{m N \delta} = \frac{\alpha}{\rho^2} - \frac{\beta n}{\rho} - \frac{1}{\delta} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \gamma_k \left(\frac{n \delta}{\rho^3} \right)^{k+1}$$

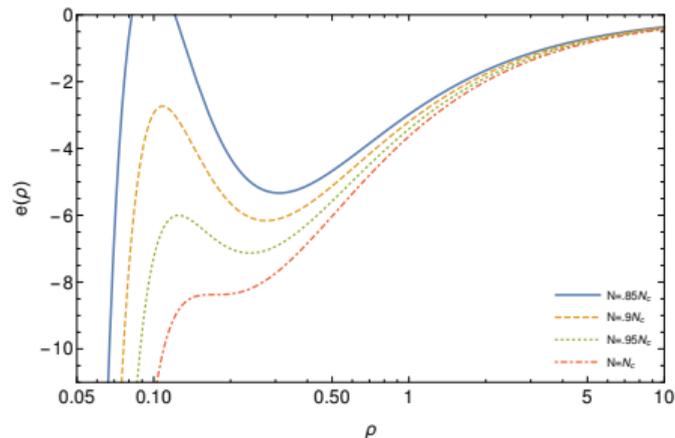
$$\delta \equiv f^2 / M_P^2 \ll 1 \quad \alpha, \beta, \gamma_k \text{ ansatz-dependent constants}$$

Minima of E w.r.t. ρ are stable bound states, axion stars!

Dilute¹ vs Dense² Axion Stars

$$\text{Dilute: } e_0(\rho) = \frac{\alpha}{\rho^2} - \frac{\beta n}{\rho} - \frac{\gamma_0 n}{\rho^3}$$

Well-approximated by only leading, attractive self-interaction term. Minima at $\rho = \mathcal{O}(1)$.



Exists for $M < M_c \sim 10^{19}$ kg; $R \sim \mathcal{O}(100)$ km

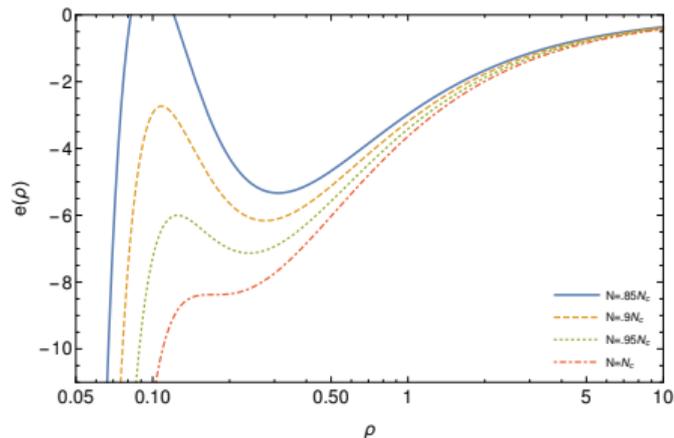
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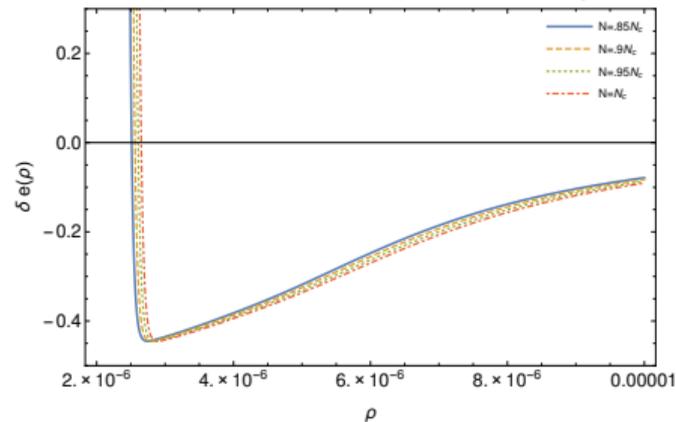
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$$\text{Dense: } e_K(\rho) = e_0(\rho) + \frac{\gamma_1 n^2 \delta}{\rho^6} - \frac{\gamma_2 n^3 \delta^2}{\rho^9} + \dots$$

Use full self-interaction potential; higher-order terms, some repulsive, are important at $\rho \ll 1$.

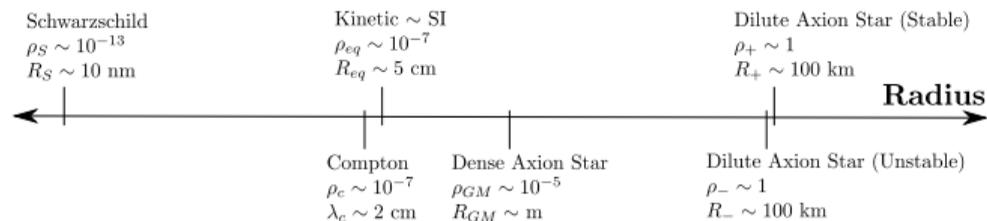


Exists for any M ; $R \sim$ few meters

Collapse of Dilute ASts

A dilute ASt can collapse if e.g. its mass exceeds M_c . Variational approximation of the total energy $E(\rho)$ lends itself directly to a classical collapse analysis:³

- LO: Collapse to black hole.
- Full axion potential: Collapse from dilute to dense ASt state!



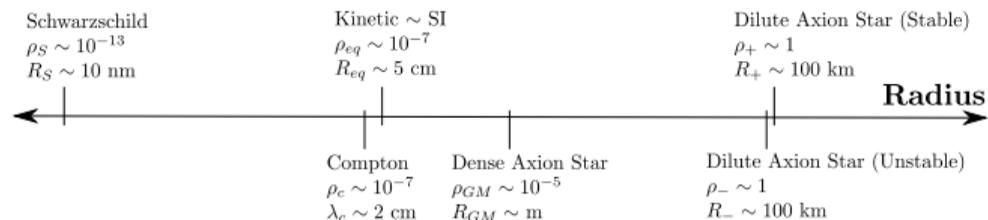
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However: Possible quantum mechanical effects lead to decay of ASts.

Axions are **real scalars** \Rightarrow No symmetry protects axion number

- Can decay through $a \rightarrow 2\gamma$ (in free or condensed state)
- Inside the condensate, novel decay mechanisms are allowed through self-interactions:⁴
 - Microscopic picture: $N a_c \rightarrow N' a_c + j a_f$
 - Macroscopic picture: $\mathcal{A}_N \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_{N'} + j a_f$

Leading order process: Emission of single relativistic axion, momentum $p = \sqrt{9E_0^2 - m^2} \approx \sqrt{8} m$

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Bosenova⁶

!: Decay rate increases as the density / binding energy increases⁵; it is an increasing function of parameter

$$\Delta \equiv \sqrt{1 - \frac{E_0^2}{m^2}}$$

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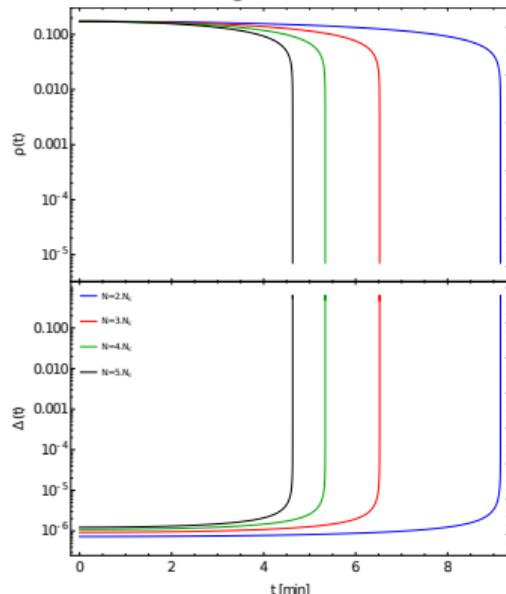
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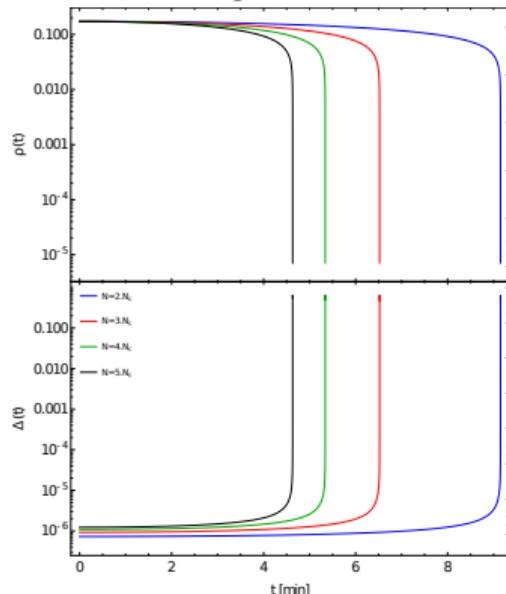
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- Collapsing axion stars have rapidly increasing binding energy, leading to fast emission of relativistic free axions
- As yet, not clear if a significant fraction of the ASt mass remains to form a dense ASt, or if such states are stable against decay on long timescales

Upshot: Collapse → Bosenova!



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Induced Instability

?: What might induce collapse of otherwise stable axion stars?

- Accretion to large masses $M > M_c$
- Interactions which change energy functional, e.g. [astrophysical collisions?](#)
- We analyzed three possibilities: collisions between...

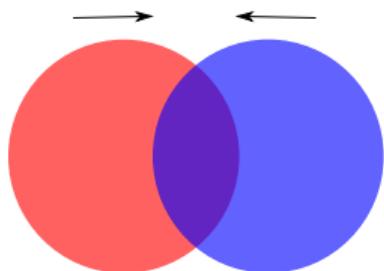
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Axion Star - Axion Star

Two roughly equal-size objects
Important axion self-interactions



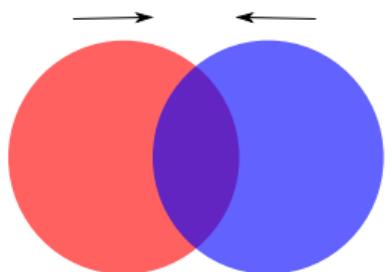
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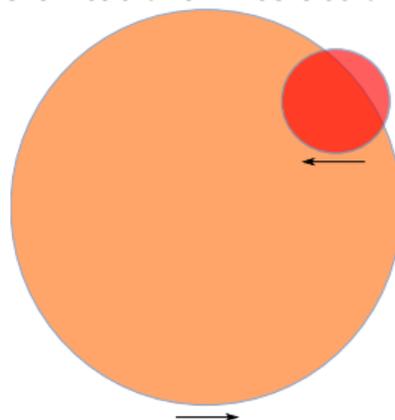
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Axion Star - Ordinary Star

$R_{\odot} \gg R_{AS}$
Gravitational interaction



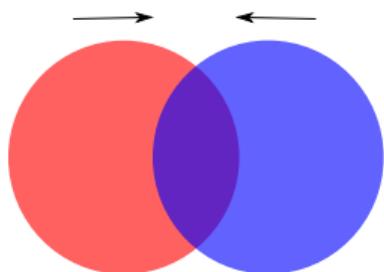
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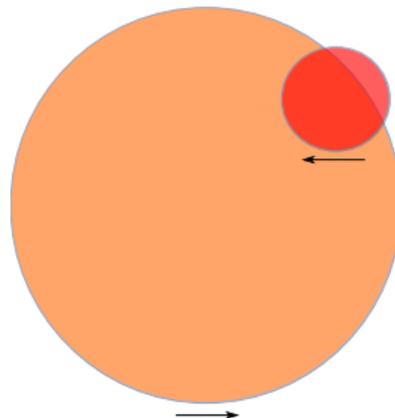
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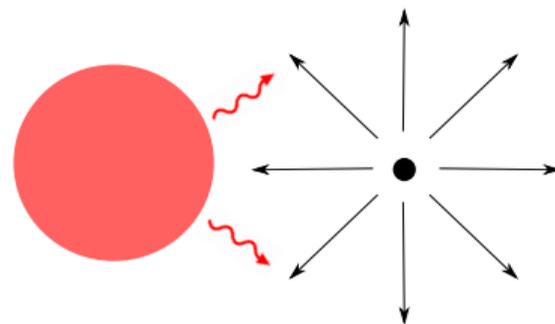
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Axion Star - Neutron Star

$a F \tilde{F}$ coupling converts $a \rightarrow \gamma$



Source of Fast Radio Bursts?

Collision Rates

The rate of astrophysical collisions is

$$\Gamma = \underbrace{\frac{1}{S}}_{\substack{S=2 \\ \text{if} \\ i=AS}} \int d^3r \underbrace{n_{AS}(\vec{r})}_{\substack{\text{Number Density} \\ \text{of AS}}} \underbrace{n_i(\vec{r})}_{\substack{\text{Number Density} \\ \text{of "i"}}} \underbrace{\langle \sigma v \rangle_i}_{\substack{\text{Cross section} \\ \text{times} \\ \text{relative velocity}}}$$

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- NFW dark matter profile for axion stars:

$$n_{AS}(r) = \frac{\rho_{NFW}(r)}{m} = \frac{\rho_0/m}{\frac{r}{R_0} \left(1 + \frac{r}{R_0}\right)^2}$$

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Total Number of AS:

$$N_{AS} = \frac{\mathcal{F}_{DM} M_{DM}}{\mathcal{F}_{AS} M_{AS}}$$

$\mathcal{F}_{AS} M_{AS} \equiv$ average ASst mass

$\mathcal{F}_{DM} M_{DM} \equiv$ ASst contribution to DM

$M_{AS} = 10^{19}$ kg (QCD) and

$M_{DM} = 10^{12} M_{\odot}$ (MW) give

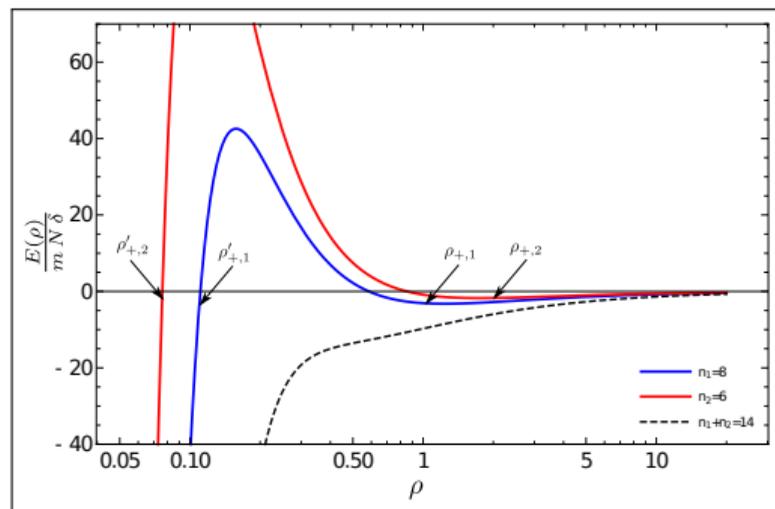
$$N_{AS} \sim 10^{23} \frac{\mathcal{F}_{DM}}{\mathcal{F}_{AS}}$$

Collisions: 2 Axion Stars

Energy functional changes to

$$\frac{E_{2AS}}{m(N_1 + N_2)\delta} = \frac{\alpha}{\rho^2} - \frac{\beta(n_1 + n_2)}{\rho} - \frac{\gamma_0(n_1 + n_2)}{\rho^3} + \dots$$

If $N_1 + N_2 > N_c$, collapse!



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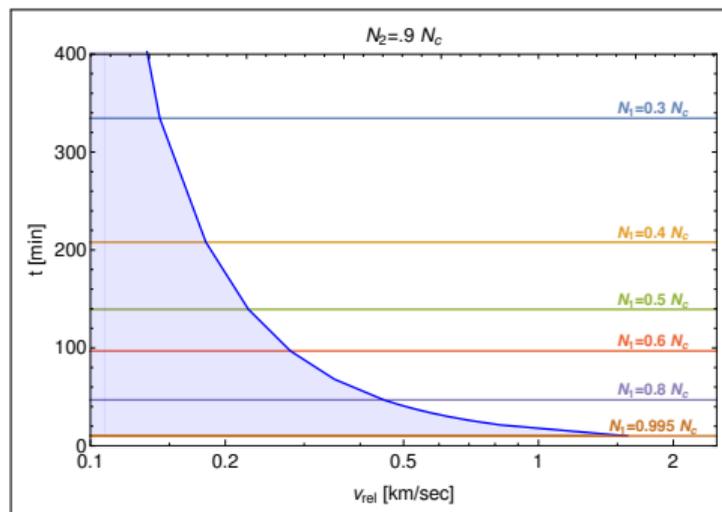
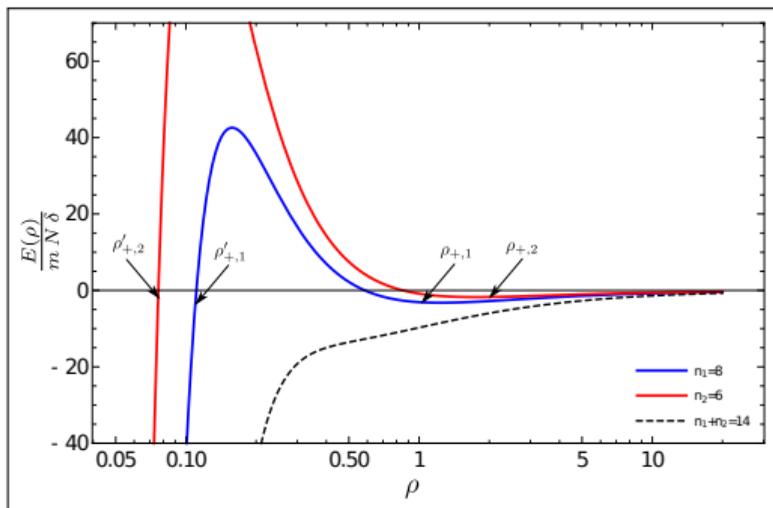
If $N_1 + N_2 > N_c$, collapse!

Long time for collapse to be completed:

$$\text{Total } \Gamma \sim 10^7 \left(\frac{\mathcal{F}_{DM}}{\mathcal{F}_{AS}} \right)^2 \frac{\text{collisions}}{\text{year} \cdot \text{galaxy}}$$

$$\text{But } P(v_{rel} \lesssim 1 \text{ km/sec}) \sim 10^{-8}$$

⇒ Small total collapse rate

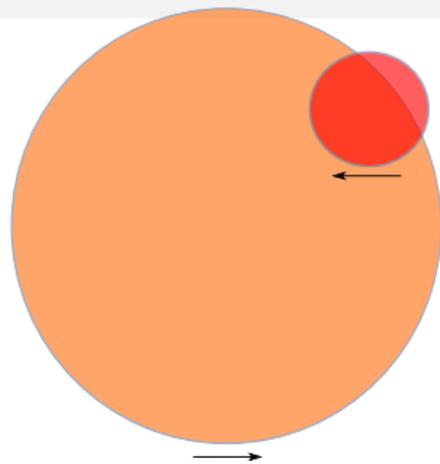


Collisions: Axion Star and Ordinary Star

- Energy functional acquires additional term

$$\frac{E_{GS}(\rho)}{m N \delta} = \frac{E(\rho)}{m N \delta} + \frac{\mu_s F}{\rho_s^3} \rho^2 + c_1$$

- Effect of star's gravity can decrease $N_c \Rightarrow$ collapse
- Large number of collisions: $\Gamma \sim 3000 \frac{\mathcal{F}_{DM}}{\mathcal{F}_{AS}} \frac{\text{collisions}}{\text{year} \cdot \text{galaxy}}$

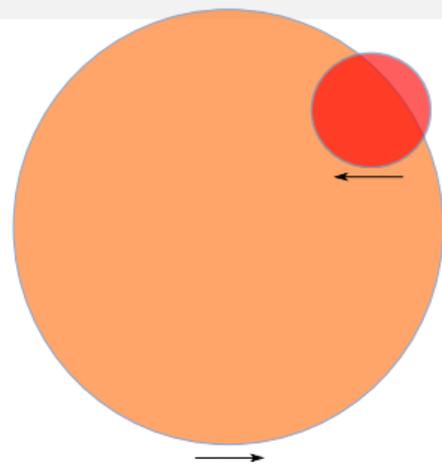
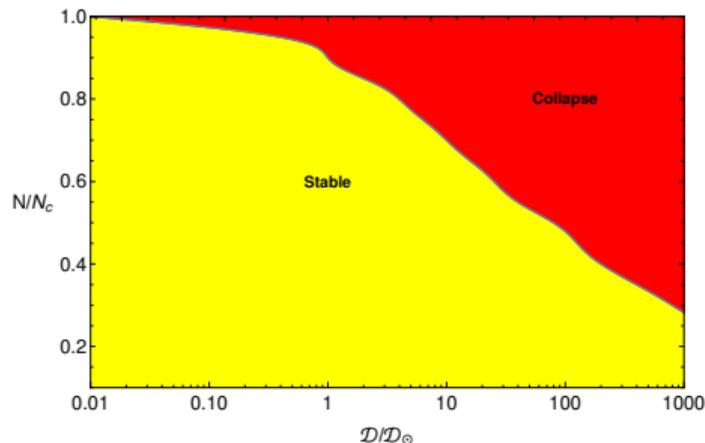


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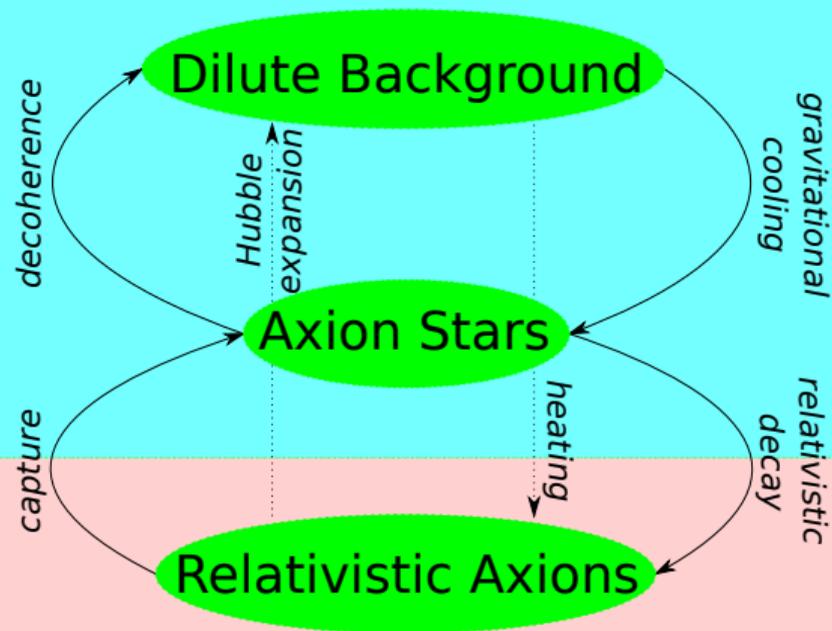
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- Depends on type of star (density $\mathcal{D} = M_s/R_s^3$)
- Typically $R_s \gg R_{AS}$
 - Lots of time to collapse
- Each induced collapse could convert $\mathcal{O}(1)$ fraction of axion star mass to relativistic particles in Bosenova

Disappearing Dark Matter

Cold DM



Hot

Estimate of conversion rate to relativistic axions through collisions with ordinary stars:

- If an $\mathcal{O}(1)$ fraction of DM is in axion stars,
- If an $\mathcal{O}(1)$ fraction of axion stars have $M \sim M_c = 10^{19}$ kg,
- If an $\mathcal{O}(1)$ fraction of $\mathcal{O}(1000)$ collisions/year/galaxy lead to collapse,
- If an $\mathcal{O}(1)$ fraction of a collapsing axion star's mass is converted to relativistic particles,

Then:

$$M_{\text{converted}} \sim \mathcal{O}(10^{23}) \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{year} \cdot \text{galaxy}}$$

Collisions: Axion Star and Neutron Star

Fast Radio Bursts (FRBs) are characterized by

- Narrow Bandwidth: 1.2 – 1.6 GHz ← Axion mass is $m \sim \left(\frac{m_{eV}}{10^{-6}} \right)$ GHz

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- Event rate: $10^{-3} \frac{\text{FRB}}{\text{year} \cdot \text{galaxy}}$ \leftarrow We find $\Gamma \sim 4 \times 10^{-4} \frac{\mathcal{F}_{DM}}{\mathcal{F}_{AS}} \frac{\text{collisions}}{\text{year} \cdot \text{galaxy}}$

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Note:

This event rate has been estimated before us. Our contribution:

- Updated phenomenological fit to NS distribution
- Characterization of uncertainties by \mathcal{F} factors

Interpretation as source of FRBs remains interesting proposal!

Conclusions

- There are energetically allowed **dilute** and **dense** axion star states
- The dense state radius is larger than the Schwarzschild radius
- Gravitationally unstable dilute axion stars collapse toward the dense state, but emit a large number of relativistic axions along the way
 - ASt collapse \Rightarrow Bosenova
- Collisions between ASts can induce collapse.
 - Collapses induced by ASt-ASt collisions likely negligible
 - Possible measurable effect from ASt-Star collisions
- Still need to understand the mass distribution of ASts, both in early universe and how it evolves today

Acknowledgements

- M. Leembruggen, J. Leeney, P. Suranyi, L.C.R. Wijewardhana
- University of Cincinnati and Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory
- Conference Organizers
- All of you!

Thank you!

Backup Slides

Relativistic Classical Field Analysis

This is the framework used by Kaup (for $\mathfrak{L} = 0$) and by Colpi et al. (for $\mathfrak{L} \gg 1$):

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{A'}{A^2 x} + \frac{1}{x^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{A}\right) &= \left(\frac{\Omega^2}{B} + 1\right) \sigma^2 + \frac{\Lambda}{2} \sigma^4 + \frac{(\sigma')^2}{A} \\ \frac{B'}{B^2 x} + \frac{1}{x^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{A}\right) &= \left(\frac{\Omega^2}{B} + 1\right) \sigma^2 - \frac{\Lambda}{2} \sigma^4 + \frac{(\sigma')^2}{A} \\ \sigma'' + \left(\frac{2}{x} + \frac{B'}{2B} - \frac{A'}{2A}\right) \sigma' + A \left[\left(\frac{\Omega^2}{B} - 1\right) \sigma - \Lambda \sigma^3 \right] &= 0,\end{aligned}$$

where the rescaled variables are $x = m r$, $\sigma = \sqrt{4\pi G} \phi$, $\Omega = \mu_0/m$ (μ_0 the eigenenergy of one boson), and $\Lambda = \lambda M_P^2/(4\pi m^2)$

- Kaup: Non interacting theories have $M_{max}^{NI} = .633 \frac{M_P^2}{m}$
- Colpi et al.: Repulsively interacting theories have $M_{max}^{rep} = .22 \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{4\pi}} \frac{M_P^3}{m^2}$

RB for Axions

Expectation values of EKG:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle N | G_{\mu}^{\nu} | N \rangle &= 8 \pi G \langle N | T_{\mu}^{\nu} | N \rangle \\ \langle N - 1 | [\mathcal{D} \mathcal{A} - V'(\mathcal{A})] | N \rangle &= 0\end{aligned}$$

The resulting equations of motion take the form

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{A'}{A^2 r} + \frac{A-1}{A r^2} &= \frac{8 \pi f^2}{M_P^2} \left[\frac{\mu_0^2 N R^2}{B f^2} + \frac{N R'^2}{A f^2} + m^2 \left[1 - J_0 \left(\frac{2\sqrt{N} R}{f} \right) \right] \right], \\ \frac{B'}{A B r} - \frac{A-1}{A r^2} &= \frac{8 \pi f^2}{M_P^2} \left[\frac{\mu_0^2 N R^2}{B f^2} + \frac{N R'^2}{A f^2} - m^2 \left[1 - J_0 \left(\frac{2\sqrt{N} R}{f} \right) \right] \right], \\ \sqrt{N} R'' + \sqrt{N} \left(\frac{2}{r} + \frac{B'}{2B} - \frac{A'}{2A} \right) R' + A \left[\frac{\sqrt{N} \mu_0^2}{B} R - f m^2 J_1 \left(\frac{2\sqrt{N} R}{f} \right) \right] &= 0\end{aligned}$$

RB for Axions (2)

Metric functions:

$$A = 1 + \delta a, \quad B = 1 + \delta b$$

EKG at leading order in $\delta = 8\pi f^2/M_P^2$:

$$a' = -\frac{a}{z} + z \left[\frac{1}{4} \epsilon_\mu^2 Z^2 + \frac{1}{4} Z'^2 + 1 - J_0(Z) \right],$$

$$b' = \frac{a}{z} + z \left[\frac{1}{4} \epsilon_\mu^2 Z^2 + \frac{1}{4} Z'^2 - 1 + J_0(Z) \right],$$

$$Z'' = \left[-\frac{2}{z} + \frac{\delta}{2} (a' - b') \right] Z' - \epsilon_\mu^2 (1 + \delta a - \delta b) Z + 2(1 + \delta a) J_1(Z)$$

RB for Axions (3)

EKG at leading order in δ and $\Delta = \sqrt{1 - \epsilon_\mu^2}$:

$$a'(x) = \frac{x}{2} Y(x)^2 - \frac{a(x)}{x},$$

$$b'(x) = \frac{a(x)}{x},$$

$$Y''(x) = -\frac{2}{x} Y'(x) - \frac{1}{8} Y(x)^3 + [1 + \kappa b(x)] Y(x)$$

Particle Number in Real Scalar Field Theory

Recall that the conjugate momentum for a scalar field Φ can be written as

$$\Pi = D_t \Phi = \frac{1}{B} \left[-i \mu_n R_n(\vec{r}) e^{-i \mu_n t} a_n + i \mu_n R_n^\dagger(\vec{r}) e^{i \mu_n t} a_n^\dagger \right],$$

which is implicitly summed over n . D_t is a covariant time derivative which gives rise to the metric function B in the denominator. Then

$$[\Phi(\vec{r}), \Pi(\vec{r}')] = \frac{2}{B} R_n^\dagger(\vec{r}) R_n(\vec{r}').$$

The requirement that the commutator be canonically normalized, $[\Phi, \Pi] = \delta^3(\vec{r} - \vec{r}')$, is equivalent to a completeness relation on the R_n functions:

$$\sum_n \frac{2}{B} \mu_n R_n^\dagger(\vec{r}) R_n(\vec{r}') = \delta^3(\vec{r} - \vec{r}')$$

Given that the R_n functions form a complete set, we can write down a related normalization condition,

$$\int \frac{2}{B} \mu_n R_n^\dagger(\vec{r}) R_n(\vec{r}) \sqrt{|g|} d^3 r = 1$$

Binding Energy Corrections to the mass M

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle N | T_{00} | N \rangle &= f^2 \left[\frac{\mu_0^2 N R^2}{B f^2} + \frac{N R'^2}{A f^2} - m^2 [1 - J_0(X)] \right] \\
 &= f^2 \left[\frac{\mu_0^2 X^2}{4 B} + \frac{m^2 X'^2}{4 A} + \frac{m^2}{4} X^2 - \frac{m^2}{64} X^4 + \dots \right] \\
 &= f^2 m^2 \left[\frac{\epsilon_\mu^2}{4 B} \Delta^2 Y^2 + \frac{1}{4} \Delta^2 Y^2 + \frac{\Delta^4 Y'^2}{4 A} - \frac{\Delta^4 Y^4}{64} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus the mass is

$$\begin{aligned}
 M &= \int \langle N | T_{00} | N \rangle \sqrt{|g|} d^3 r \\
 &\approx \frac{f^2}{m \Delta} \pi \int \left[(1 - \Delta^2)(1 - \delta b) Y^2 + Y^2 + \frac{\Delta^2 Y'^2}{A} - \frac{\Delta^2 Y^4}{16} \right] \left[1 + \frac{\delta}{2}(a + b) \right] x^2 dx \\
 &= \frac{f^2}{m \Delta} 2 \pi \int \left[Y_0^2 + 2 Y_0 Y_1 + \frac{\delta a}{2} Y_0^2 - \frac{\Delta^2}{2} Y_0^2 + \frac{\Delta^2}{2} Y_0'^2 - \frac{\Delta^2 Y_0^4}{32} \right] x^2 dx
 \end{aligned}$$

Binding Energy Corrections to N

The particle number is

$$\begin{aligned} N &= \int \langle N | J^0 | N \rangle \sqrt{|g|} d^3 r \\ &= \int \sqrt{\frac{A}{B}} 2 \mu_0 N R(r)^2 d^3 r \\ &= \frac{f^2}{m^2 \Delta} 2 \pi \sqrt{1 - \Delta^2} \int \sqrt{\frac{1 + \delta a(x)}{1 + \delta b(x)}} Y(x)^2 x^2 dx \\ &\approx \frac{f^2}{m^2 \Delta} 2 \pi \left[1 - \frac{\Delta^2}{2} \right] \int \left[1 + \frac{\delta}{2} (a - b) \right] Y(x)^2 x^2 dx \\ &= \frac{f^2}{m^2 \Delta} 2 \pi \left[Y_0^2 + 2 Y_0 Y_1 - \frac{\Delta^2}{2} Y_0^2 + \frac{\delta}{2} (a - b) Y_0^2 \right] x^2 dx \end{aligned}$$

Leading Binding Energy Corrections

$$M = \frac{2\pi f^2}{m\Delta} \left[l_0 + 2l_1 + \frac{\delta}{2} l_a - \frac{\Delta^2}{2} l_0 + \frac{\Delta^2}{2} l_p - \frac{\Delta^2}{32} l_4 \right], \quad N = \frac{2\pi f^2}{m^2\Delta} \left[l_0 + 2l_1 + \frac{\delta}{2} l_a - \frac{\delta}{2} l_b - \frac{\Delta^2}{2} l_0 \right]$$

in terms of the integrals

$$l_0 = \int Y_0^2 x^2 dx$$

$$l_p = \int Y_0'^2 x^2 dx$$

$$l_4 = \int Y_0^4 x^2 dx$$

$$l_a = \int a Y_0^2 x^2 dx$$

$$l_b = \int b Y_0^2 x^2 dx$$

$$l_1 = \int Y_0 Y_1 x^2 dx$$

The binding energy, at leading order in δ, Δ^2 , is

$$E_B = M - mN = \frac{2\pi f^2}{m\Delta} \left[\frac{\delta}{2} l_b + \frac{\Delta^2}{2} l_p - \frac{\Delta^2}{32} l_4 \right]$$

Numerical Values

κ	M [kg]	R_{99} [km]	d [kg / m ³]	$\frac{E_B}{mN}$ [10^{-13}]
0.01	2.01×10^{18}	115	311	141
0.09	6.91×10^{18}	386	28.6	2.93
0.16	1.02×10^{19}	593	11.6	-3.24
0.25	1.27×10^{19}	854	4.85	-4.18
0.29	1.31×10^{19}	972	3.41	-3.99
0.34	1.33×10^{19}	1077	2.53	-3.71
0.38	1.32×10^{19}	1183	1.90	-3.39
0.64	1.20×10^{19}	1652	0.633	-2.25
1	1.03×10^{19}	2145	0.248	-1.49
4	5.56×10^{18}	4499	0.0146	-.384
16	2.85×10^{18}	9062	0.000913	-.109
100	1.15×10^{18}	22849	0.000023	$< 10^{-2}$

Table: Macroscopic parameters describing a dilute axion star: mass M , radius R_{99} , average density d , and reduced binding energy per particle E_B/mN , as a function of $\kappa = \delta/\Delta^2$. To set the numerical scale we have fixed the QCD parameters $m = 10^{-5}$ eV and $f = 6 \times 10^{11}$ GeV.

Computing the $3a_c \rightarrow a_p$ Decay Rate

We modify the axion field expansion to include a free axion term

$$\mathcal{A} = R(r)e^{-i\mu_0 t} a_0 + \int \frac{d^3 p}{\sqrt{2\mu_p}} e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{r} - i\mu_p t} a_p(\vec{p}) + h.c.$$

This leads to the leading-order matrix element

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{M}_3 &\equiv \mathcal{M}[N \rightarrow (N-3) + 1 \text{ emitted}] \\ &= m^2 f^2 \int dt d^3 r \langle N-3, p | 1 - \cos\left(\frac{\mathcal{A}}{f}\right) | N \rangle \\ &= -i \frac{f}{m} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\mu_p}} \int dt d^3 y J_3[Z(y)] e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{r}} e^{i(3\mu_0 - \mu_p)t} \\ &= -i \frac{4\pi^2}{\sqrt{2\mu_p}} \frac{f}{p} \delta(3\mu_0 - \mu_p) \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \sin\left(\frac{py}{m}\right) J_3[Z(y)] dy}_{I_3(p)} \end{aligned}$$

The Decay Rate at Weak Binding

Note that the dimensionless momentum $k = p/m$ of the ejected axion is sharply peaked for $E - m \ll m$

$$k_3 = \sqrt{9E^2/m^2 - 1} \approx \sqrt{8}$$

We find the decay rate for $3a_c \rightarrow a_p$ is

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma_3 &= \frac{1}{T} \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3 (2\mu_p)} |\mathcal{M}_3|^2 \\ &= \frac{2\pi f^2}{m k_3} |I_3(k_3)|^2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}I_3(k) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \sin\left(\frac{p y}{m}\right) J_3[Z(y)] dy \\ &= \frac{1}{\Delta^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \sin\left(\frac{k x}{\Delta}\right) J_3[\Delta Y(x)] dx\end{aligned}$$

$$\stackrel{\Delta \ll 1}{\approx} \frac{\Delta}{48} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \sin\left(\frac{k x}{\Delta}\right) Y(x)^3 dx$$

In principle, we can use our solutions $Y(x)$ and integrate directly.

In practice, this is made difficult by the **rapidly oscillating *sin* term**

Contour Integration of $I_3(k)$

$$I_3(k_3) = \frac{\Delta}{48} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \sin\left(\frac{k_3 x}{\Delta}\right) Y(x)^3 dx$$

Consider the contour integral instead:

- $Y(x)$ has no singularities along the real axis
- We show that the leading singular term is of the form $Y_s(x) = \frac{8 y_l}{x^2 + y_l^2}$ with $y_l \approx .603$
- Deforming the contour of integration until we reach $i y_l$, the contribution of this pole dominates the integral. The result is

$$I_3(k_3) = i \frac{32\pi y_l}{3\Delta} \exp\left(-\frac{k_3 y_l}{\Delta}\right)$$

Alternative Derivation: Spherical Waves

For our complete set of scattering states, we could have used

$$\phi_s(t, r) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \sum_{\ell_z=-\ell}^{\ell} Y_{\ell, \ell_z}(\hat{r}) \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dp p}{2\mu_p} j_{\ell}(p r) e^{-i\mu_p t} a_{\ell, \ell_z}(p)$$

The spherical wave annihilation operators satisfy the commutation relation

$$[a_{\ell, \ell_z}(p), a_{\ell', \ell'_z}(p')] = (2\pi)^3 2\mu_p \delta(p - p') \delta_{\ell, \ell'} \delta_{\ell_z, \ell'_z}.$$

Note that the annihilation operators in the two bases are related as

$$a_{\ell, \ell_z}(p) = i^{\ell} p \int d\Omega_p Y_{\ell, \ell_z}^*(\hat{p}) a(\vec{p}),$$

which can also be inverted,

$$a(\vec{p}) = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \sum_{\ell_z=-\ell}^{\ell} i^{-\ell} Y_{\ell, \ell_z}(\hat{p}) a_{\ell, \ell_z}(p).$$

Both sets of scattering states are *precisely equal*. One can be derived from the other by using the expansion of the exponential in spherical harmonics.

Alternative Derivation: Spherical Waves (2)

The transition matrix element in this basis has the form

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{M}_3^{sph} &= -i m^2 f \int dt d^3r J_3 \left(\frac{2\sqrt{N} R(r)}{f} \right) \langle 0 | \phi_s(t, r) | \vec{p} \rangle \\ &= -i m^2 f \int dt d^3r J_3 \left(\frac{2\sqrt{N} R(r)}{f} \right) \sqrt{4\pi} j_0(p r) e^{-i \mu_p t}\end{aligned}$$

Although this matrix element is different when using the spherical waves, the decay rate is calculated using a different integration over phase space,

$$\Gamma_3 = \frac{1}{T} \int \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{dp}{2\mu_p} |\mathcal{M}_3^{sph}|^2$$

and the final answer is the same.

The Nonrelativistic Limit for Axions

Expand the axion field in the nonrelativistic limit as

$$\mathcal{A}(t, r) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2m}} \left[e^{-imt} \psi(t, r) + e^{imt} \psi^*(t, r) \right].$$

In the axion potential, the n th term is proportional to the factor

$$\mathcal{A}^{2n} = \frac{{}^{2n}C_n}{(2m)^n} (\psi^* \psi)^n + \mathcal{O}(e^{\pm imt}),$$

where ${}^{2n}C_n$ are binomial coefficients. Dropping the rapidly oscillating pieces, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} W(\psi) &= m^2 f^2 \left[1 - \cos \left(\frac{\mathcal{A}}{f} \right) \right] - \frac{m^2}{2} \mathcal{A}^2 \\ &\rightarrow m^2 f^2 \left[1 - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{{}^{2n}C_n (-1)^n}{(2n)!} \left(\frac{\psi^* \psi}{2mf^2} \right)^n \right] - \frac{m}{2} \psi^* \psi \\ &= m^2 f^2 \left[1 - \frac{\psi^* \psi}{2mf^2} - J_0 \left(\sqrt{\frac{2\psi^* \psi}{mf^2}} \right) \right] \end{aligned}$$