

Self-interacting dark matter model without dark energy in cosmology

YIXUAN ZHU¹

¹*Department of Astronomy, Beijing Normal University. Beijing 100875. PR China*

ABSTRACT

1. INTRODUCTION

2. THE BASIC EQUATIONS IN THE IDM MODEL

We assume that the total density of the cosmic fluid obeys the collisional Boltzmann equation

$$\dot{\rho} + 3H\rho + \kappa\rho^2 - 2\Psi = 0, \quad (1)$$

where ρ is the total energy-density of the cosmic fluid, containing dark matter, baryons, and any type of exotic energy, Ψ is the rate of creation of DM particle pairs, and the annihilation parameter $\kappa(\geq 0)$ is given by:

$$\kappa = \frac{\langle\sigma u\rangle}{M_x}, \quad (2)$$

where σ is the cross-section for annihilation, u is the mean particle velocity, and M_x is the mass of the DM particle. Compared to the usual fluid equation, the effective pressure term is

$$P = \frac{\kappa\rho^2 - \Psi}{3H}. \quad (3)$$

When $\kappa\rho^2 - \Psi < 0$, what means that the IDM particle creation term is larger than the annihilation item, IDM may serve as a negative pressure source in the global dynamics of the Universe, like the role of Dark Energy in the general cosmological models.

Basilakos & Plionis (2009) identified two functional forms for which the previous Boltzmann equation can be solved analytically. Referring to Appendix B in Basilakos & Plionis (2009), only one of these two is of interest because it provides a " $\propto a^{-3}$ " dependence of the scale factor, which is

$$\Psi(a) = aH(a)R(a) = C_1(n+3)a^n H(a) + \kappa C_1^2 a^{2m}. \quad (4)$$

And the total energy density is

$$\rho(a) = C_1 a^n + \frac{a^{-3}F(a)}{C_2 - \int_1^a x^{-3}f(x)F(x)dx}, \quad (5)$$

where $f(a) = -\kappa/[aH(a)]$, and the kernel function $F(a)$ has the form

$$F(a) = \exp\left[-2\kappa C_1 \int_1^a \frac{x^{n-1}}{H(x)}dx\right]. \quad (6)$$

The first term of Eq.(5) is the density corresponding to the residual matter creation that results from a possible disequilibrium between the particle creation and annihilation processes, while the second term can be viewed as the energy density of the self-IDM particles that are dominated by the annihilation process.

2.1. Model 1: relation to the Λ CDM model

If $n = 0$, the global density evolution can be transformed as

$$\rho(a) = C_1 + a^{-3} \frac{e^{-2\kappa C_1(t-t_0)}}{C_2 - \kappa Z(t)}, \quad (7)$$

where $Z(t) = \int_{t_0}^t a^{-3} e^{-2\kappa C_1(t'-t_0)} dt'$ (Basilakos & Plionis (2009)). Using the usual unit-less Ω -like parameterization, we obtain that

$$\left(\frac{H}{H_0}\right)^2 = \Omega_{1,0} + \frac{\Omega_{1,0}\Omega_{2,0}a^{-3}e^{-2\kappa C_1(t-t_0)}}{\Omega_{1,0} + \kappa C_1\Omega_{2,0}Z(t)}, \quad (8)$$

where $\Omega_{1,0} = 8\pi G C_1 / 3H_0^2$ and $\Omega_{2,0} = 8\pi G / 3H_0^2 C_2$, which related to Ω_Λ and Ω_m in the Λ CDM model, respectively. From Eq.(2), we can also give the mass of the DM particle related to the range of κC_1 (in the unit of Gyr^{-1})

$$M_x = \frac{3.325 \times 10^{-12}}{\kappa C_1} \frac{\langle\sigma u\rangle}{10^{-23}} h^2 (1 - \Omega_{2,0}) \text{ GeV}, \quad (9)$$

where $h \equiv H_0/[100\text{km/s/Mpc}]$.

2.2. Model 2 : relation to the w CDM model

If $\kappa = 0$, the global density evolution can be written as

$$\rho(a) = \mathcal{D}a^{-3} + C_1 a^n, \quad (10)$$

where $\mathcal{D} = C_2 - C - 1$. The conditions in which the current model acts as a quintessence cosmology are given by $\mathcal{D} > 0$, $C_1 > 0$, and $w_{\text{IDM}} = -1 - n/3$. This solution is mathematically equivalent to that of the gravitational matter creation model of(). The Hubble flow is now given by

$$\left(\frac{H}{H_0}\right)^2 = \Omega_{2,0}a^{-3} + \Omega_{1,0}a^n, \quad (11)$$

where $\Omega_{2,0} = 8\pi G \mathcal{D} / 3H_0^2$ and $\Omega_{1,0} = 8\pi G C_1 / 3H_0^2$, respectively.(Basilakos & Plionis (2009))

3. DATASET

To constrain the relevant IDM models (Basilakos & Plionis (2009)), we use the newly revised observational $H(z)$ data (OHD)(Simon et al. (2005); Stern et al. (2010); Moresco et al. (2012); Zhang et al. (2014); Moresco et al. (2016); Ratsimbazafy et al. (2017); Moresco (2015); Borghi et al. (2022); Jiao et al. (2023)), the Pantheon+ set of 1701 SNe Ia (Scolnic et al. (2022)), the QSO data from Lusso, E. et al. (2020), the BAO data from SDSS and DESI 2024.

3.1. The observational $H(z)$ data

It is widely known that the Hubble parameter $H(z)$ depends on the differential age as a function of redshift z in the form

$$H(z) = -\frac{1}{1+z} \frac{dz}{dt}, \quad (12)$$

which provides a direct measurement on $H(z)$ based on dz/dt . OHD measurements have recently been acquired mainly employing cosmic chronometers (CC). The CC method is used to provide 33 observational data points, which are taken in the redshift range [0.07, 1.965]. The Table 1 lists the OHD dataset used in this analysis. In this case, χ^2 can be defined as

$$\chi_{\text{OHD}}^2 = \sum_i^{33} \frac{(H_{\text{th}} - H_{\text{data}})^2}{\sigma_i^2}. \quad (13)$$

3.2. Type Ia supernovae

SNe Ia have long been used as "standard candles" to give a direct measurement of their luminosity distance, and provides strong constraints on cosmological parameters. We use the latest Pantheon+ data set of 1701 SNe Ia samples (Scolnic et al. (2022)), which covers the redshift range [0, 2.26].

We use the fiducial SN Ia magnitude (M_b) determined from SH0ES 2021 Cepheid host distances (Riess et al. (2022)), which gives the μ_{data} and we give the χ^2 as

$$\chi_{\text{SNe}}^2 = \Delta^T C^{-1} \Delta, \quad (14)$$

where $\Delta = (\mu_{\text{th}} - \mu_{\text{data}})$ and C^{-1} is the inverse of the covariance matrix of the SNe Ia data, the distance modulus is $\mu = 5 \log_{10}(d_L/\text{Mpc}) + 25$, and the luminosity distance d_L can be given as a function of redshift z

$$d_L = (1+z) \int_0^z \frac{cdz'}{H(z')}. \quad (15)$$

To eliminate the advanced restriction to H_0 from M_b , we adopt the likelihood function as

$$\tilde{\chi}_{\text{SNe}}^2 = \chi_{\text{SNe}}^2 - \frac{B^2}{C} + \ln \left(\frac{C}{2\pi} \right), \quad (16)$$

Table 1. The OHD dataset

z	$H(z)$	Reference
0.07	69±19.6	Zhang et al. (2014)
0.09	69±12	Simon et al. (2005)
0.12	68.6±26.2	Zhang et al. (2014)
0.17	83±8	Simon et al. (2005)
0.179	75±4	Moresco et al. (2012)
0.199	75±5	Moresco et al. (2012)
0.2	72.9±29.6	Zhang et al. (2014)
0.27	77±14	Simon et al. (2005)
0.28	88.8±36.6	Zhang et al. (2014)
0.352	83±14	Moresco et al. (2012)
0.3802	83±13.5	Moresco et al. (2016)
0.4	95±17	Simon et al. (2005)
0.4004	77±10.2	Moresco et al. (2016)
0.4247	87.1±11.2	Moresco et al. (2016)
0.4497	92.8±12.9	Moresco et al. (2016)
0.47	89±34	Ratsimbazafy et al. (2017)
0.4783	80.9±9	Moresco et al. (2016)
0.48	97±62	Stern et al. (2010)
0.593	104±13	Moresco et al. (2012)
0.68	92±8	Moresco et al. (2012)
0.75	98.8±33.6	Borghi et al. (2022)
0.781	105±12	Moresco et al. (2012)
0.8	113.1±15.1	Jiao et al. (2023)
0.875	125±17	Moresco et al. (2012)
0.88	90±40	Stern et al. (2010)
0.9	117±23	Simon et al. (2005)
1.037	154±20	Moresco et al. (2012)
1.3	168±17	Simon et al. (2005)
1.363	160±33.6	Moresco (2015)
1.43	177±18	Simon et al. (2005)
1.53	140±14	Simon et al. (2005)
1.75	202±40	Simon et al. (2005)
1.965	186.5±50.4	Moresco (2015)

where $B = \Delta^T C^{-1}$ and C is the sum of C^{-1} . Apparently these two functions give the same constraints in $\Omega_{2,0}$ and $\log_{10}(\kappa C_1)$.

3.3. Quasar

The quasar gives a higher redshift than SNe Ia. We use the QSO dataset from Lusso, E. et al. (2020), which gives 2421 samples with the ultraviolet (UV) and X-ray luminosity. The redshift is up to $\simeq 7.5$.

The $L_X - L_{UV}$ relation of quasar is usually written as

$$\log_{10}(L_X) = \beta + \gamma \log_{10}(L_{UV}), \quad (17)$$

which gives that

$$\log_{10}(F_X) = \beta + (\gamma - 1) \log_{10}(4\pi) + \gamma \log_{10}(F_{UV}) + 2(\gamma - 1) \log_{10}(d_L), \quad (18)$$

where d_L is the luminosity distance same as Eq.(15). Here we use the parameters defined in Li et al. (2024), which gives

$$\beta = \beta_0 + \beta_1(1+z), \gamma = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1(1+z), \quad (19)$$

so the χ^2 function for the QSO data can be defined as

$$\chi_{\text{QSO}}^2 = \sum_i^{2421} \left[\frac{(y_{\text{th}}^2 - y_{\text{data}}^2)}{s_i^2} - \ln(2\pi s_i^2) \right], \quad (20)$$

where $s_i^2 = dy_i^2 + \gamma^2 dx_i^2 + \delta^2$ refers to the uncertainties on the x_i ($\log_{10} F_X$) and y_i ($\log_{10} F_{UV}$) and δ_i represent the intrinsic dispersion.

3.4. Baryon acoustic oscillation

The Baryon acoustic oscillation method (BAO) provides a key cosmological probe sensitive to the cosmic expansion history with well-controlled systematics. We use two BAO data sets from the SDSS (Alam et al. (2021)) and DESI 2024 (Collaboration et al. (2024)), which are given at Table 2 and Table 3, respectively. The redshift is up to 2.33 both in the SDSS and the DESI 2024 dataset.

The χ^2 function for the BAO data is defined as

$$\chi_{\text{BAO}}^2 = \sum_i \frac{(D_{\text{th}}/r_d - D_{\text{data}}/r_d)^2}{\sigma_i^2}, \quad (21)$$

where D refers to D_M , D_H , or D_V , which are given as

$$D_M(z) = c \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(z')}, \quad (22)$$

$$D_H(z) = \frac{c}{H(z)}, \quad (23)$$

$$D_V(z) = [z D_M^2(z) D_H(z)]^{1/3}, \quad (24)$$

and r_d is the sound horizon at the drag epoch, which is given as

$$r_d = \int_{z_{\text{drag}}}^{\infty} \frac{c_s dz'}{H(z')}. \quad (25)$$

However, the Eq.(8) just have a singularity when $z \rightarrow \infty$, so the IDM model can not give a constraint to the r_d and we just try to use the cross parameter $r_d h$ to give the constraints.

Table 2. The BAO-only dataset from SDSS

z_{eff}	D_M/r_d	D_H/r_d	D_V/r_d
0.15			4.47 ± 0.17
0.38	10.23 ± 0.17	25 ± 0.76	
0.51	13.36 ± 0.21	22.33 ± 0.58	
0.7	17.86 ± 0.33	19.33 ± 0.53	
0.85			$18.33^{+0.57}_{-0.62}$
1.48	30.69 ± 0.8	13.26 ± 0.55	
2.33	37.6 ± 1.9	8.93 ± 0.28	
2.33	37.3 ± 1.7	9.08 ± 0.34	

Table 3. The BAO dataset from DESI 2024

z_{eff}	D_M/r_d	D_H/r_d	D_V/r_d
0.295			7.93 ± 0.15
0.51	13.62 ± 0.25	20.98 ± 0.61	
0.706	16.85 ± 0.32	20.08 ± 0.6	
0.93	21.71 ± 0.28	17.88 ± 0.35	
1.317	27.79 ± 0.69	13.82 ± 0.42	
1.491			26.07 ± 0.67
2.33	39.71 ± 0.94	8.52 ± 0.17	

4. CONSTRAINT RESULTS

We use the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method based on the opening package **emcee** to give a global constraints to the free parameters $\Omega_{2,0}$ and $\log_{10}(\kappa C_1)$ in Model 1 and n in Model 2. Besides, we also add the parameter H_0 or h to give the constraints to the dark matter particle mass M_x .

The prior range set for free parameters are given at Table 4

Table 4. Parameters and priors used in analysis

parameter	initial	prior
$\Omega_{2,0}$	0.3	$\mathcal{U}[0.0, 1.0]$
n	0	$\mathcal{U}[-10, 10]$
$\log_{10}(\kappa C_1/\text{Gyr}^{-1})$	—	$\mathcal{U}[-10, 0]$
$H_0[\text{km/s/Mpc}]$	70	$\mathcal{U}[60, 80]$
β_0	6	$\mathcal{U}[-15, 15]$
β_1	1	$\mathcal{U}[-10, 10]$
γ_0	0.6	$\mathcal{U}[0.0, 1.0]$
γ_1	0	$\mathcal{U}[-1.0, 1.0]$
δ	0.2	$\mathcal{U}[0.0, 1.0]$
$r_d h[\text{Mpc}]$	100	$\mathcal{U}[50, 150]$

4.1. Model 1: mimicking the Λ CDM model

The Eq.(8) convergent to the flat Λ CDM model as $\log_{10}(\kappa C_1) \rightarrow -\infty$, therefore the constraints could only

give the upper limit of what, and give the lower limit of M_x according to Eq.(9), respectively.

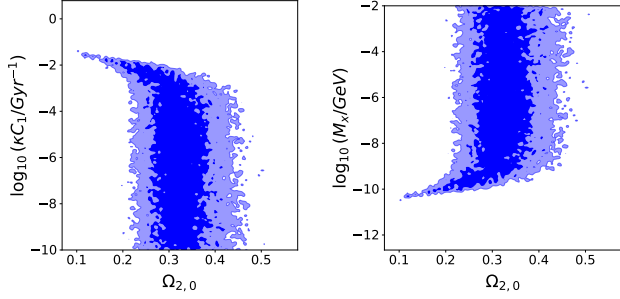


Figure 1. The constraint result from the observational $H(z)$ data

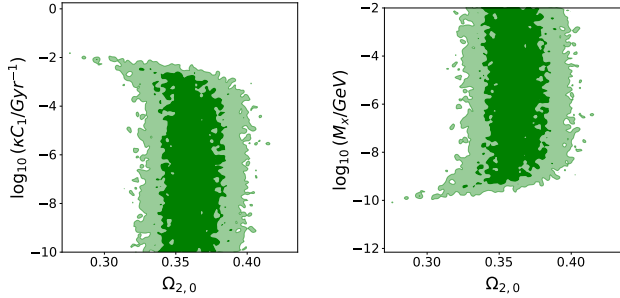


Figure 2. The constraint result from the supernovae Ia data

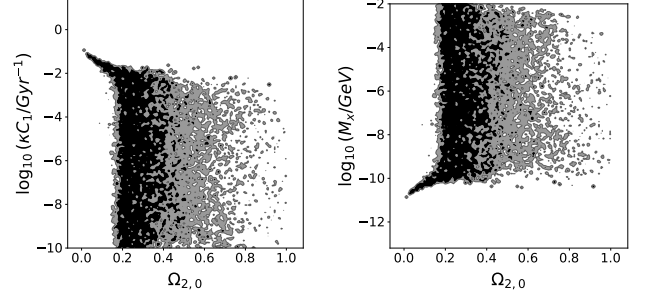


Figure 3. The constraint result from the quasar data

5. CONCLUSIONS

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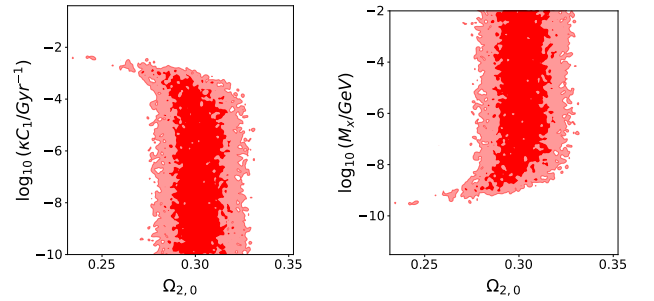


Figure 4. The constraint result from the BAO data

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