

Constraint result to the self-interacting dark matter model without dark energy in cosmology

YIXUAN ZHU¹

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

ABSTRACT

1. INTRODUCTION

The standard Λ -Cold Dark Matter (Λ CDM) model has been successful in explaining the accelerated expansion of the Universe (Riess et al. (1998); Perlmutter et al. (1999)), from the cosmic microwave background (CMB) anisotropies (Bennett et al. (1996)) to the measurement of baryon acoustic oscillations (BAO; Eisenstein et al. (2005)). However, there are also many alternative models that have been proposed to describe the phenomenon, such as the canonical “quintessence” scalar field theories (Ratra & Peebles (1988); Wetterich (1988); Caldwell et al. (1998)), non-canonical “k-essence” theories (Armendariz-Picon et al. (2000, 2001)) and the modified gravity models (see, e.g., Clifton et al. (2012) for a review).

It has been shown that dark matter self-interaction could contribute to the accelerated expansion without dark energy component (Zimdahl et al. (2001); Balakin et al. (2003)). According to the Boltzmann formalism, the disequilibrium between dark matter particle creation and annihilation processes would create an effective source term making negative pressure just like the dark energy. Basilakos & Plionis (2009) investigated the analytical solutions for the simple interacting dark matter (IDM) model, and find that the effective annihilation term is much smaller than the results given by the general methods. The gravitational matter creation model (Lima et al. (2008)) is mathematically equivalent to one case of the IDM models (Basilakos & Plionis (2009)).

In this paper, we use the newly revised data from $H(z)$, supernovae Ia, quasars and baryon acoustic oscillation by using the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method. The result gives that the lower limit of the interacting dark matter particle mass is about 1 eV.

2. THE BASIC EQUATIONS IN THE IDM MODEL

We assume that the total density of the cosmic fluid obeys the collisional Boltzmann equation (Kolb & Turner (2019))

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

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 Lima et al. (2008). 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 quasar data from Lusso, E. et al. (2020), the BAO data from SDSS-IV (Alam et al. (2021)) and DESI DR2 (Collaboration et al. (2025)).

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

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

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 SNe 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

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

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

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

where B is the sum of ΔC^{-1} and \mathcal{C} is the sum of 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

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

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)

Table 1. The OHD dataset from different reference.

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

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

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 (BAO) method provides a key cosmological probe sensitive to the cosmic expansion history with well-controlled systematics. We use two BAO datasets from the SDSS-IV (Alam et al. (2021)) and DESI DR2 (Collaboration et al. (2025)), 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

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

where c_s is the sound speed prior to recombination.

However, the solution of Eq.(8) only gives an upper limit of redshift z_{max} (see Appendix), and the cross parameter $r_d h$ is used to give the constraints.

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

For the dataset which cannot give a constraint to H_0 , we use $h \simeq 0.7$ as the default value to calculate the dark matter particle mass M_x

4.1. Model 1: mimicking the Λ CDM model

The Eq.(8) convergent to the flat Λ CDM model as $\log_{10}(\kappa C_1) \rightarrow -\infty$, thus the constraints could only give the upper limit of what, and give the lower limit of M_x according to Eq.(9), respectively.

Tracer	z_{eff}	D_V/r_d	D_M/r_d	D_H/r_d
MGS	0.15	4.51 ± 0.14	—	—
BOSS galaxy	0.38	—	10.27 ± 0.15	24.89 ± 0.58
BOSS galaxy	0.51	—	13.38 ± 0.18	22.43 ± 0.48
eBOSS LRG	0.70	—	17.65 ± 0.30	19.78 ± 0.46
eBOSS ELG	0.85	—	19.5 ± 1.0	19.6 ± 2.1
eBOSS quasar	1.48	—	30.21 ± 0.79	13.23 ± 0.47
Ly α -Ly α	2.33	—	37.6 ± 1.9	8.93 ± 0.28
Ly α -quasar	2.33	—	37.3 ± 1.7	9.08 ± 0.34

Table 2. The BAO+RSD measurements dataset from SDSS-IV.

Tracer	z_{eff}	D_V/r_d	D_M/r_d	D_H/r_d
BGS	0.295	7.942 ± 0.075	—	—
LRG1	0.510	12.720 ± 0.099	13.588 ± 0.167	21.863 ± 0.425
LRG2	0.706	16.050 ± 0.110	17.351 ± 0.177	19.455 ± 0.330
LRG3+ELG1	0.934	19.721 ± 0.091	21.576 ± 0.152	17.641 ± 0.193
ELG2	1.321	24.252 ± 0.174	27.601 ± 0.318	14.176 ± 0.221
QSO	1.484	26.055 ± 0.398	30.512 ± 0.760	12.817 ± 0.516
Ly α	2.330	31.267 ± 0.256	38.988 ± 0.531	8.632 ± 0.101
LRG3	0.922	19.656 ± 0.105	21.648 ± 0.178	17.577 ± 0.213
ELG1	0.955	20.008 ± 0.183	21.707 ± 0.335	17.803 ± 0.297

Table 3. The BAO dataset from DESI DR2.

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	$\mathcal{U}[50, 150]$

Table 4. Parameters and priors used in analysis. All of the priors are flat in the ranges given. The $\log_{10}(\kappa C_1)$ does not have a predicted value, and the initial value of each chain is selected randomly uniformly within the prior range.

We use the 97.7% and 2.3% quantiles (about 2σ) to determine the upper and lower limits of the parameters. The constraint results are shown in Figure 1-5 and summarized in Table 5.

We could find that the combined result of SNe Ia and QSO is quite similar to SNe Ia result, what may refer that the QSO cannot give an effective constraint. It may be due to the data quality at the high redshift, while the effective redshift of QSO as tracers in BAO is about 1.5, respectively, within the SNe Ia range.

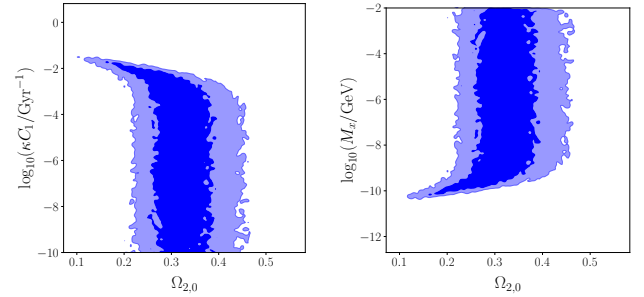


Figure 1. The constraint result from the observational $H(z)$ data.

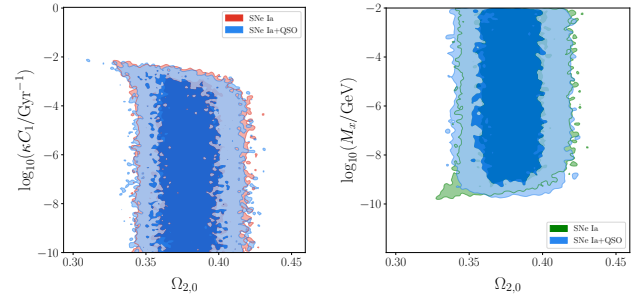


Figure 2. The constraint result from the supernovae Ia data compared with the SNe Ia+QSO data.

Model 1	OHD	SNe Ia	SNe Ia + QSO	SNe Ia + OHD	BAO	BAO + SNe Ia + OHD
$\Omega_{2,0}$	$0.324^{+0.056}_{-0.066}$	$0.380^{+0.020}_{-0.020}$	$0.378^{+0.020}_{-0.020}$	$0.375^{+0.019}_{-0.019}$	$0.298^{+0.007}_{-0.007}$	$0.308^{+0.005}_{-0.007}$
$\log_{10}(\kappa C_1/\text{Gyr}^{-1})$	< -2.08	< -2.73	< -2.75	< -2.91	< -3.38	< -3.71
$\log_{10}(M_x/\text{GeV})$	> -9.85	> -9.26	> -9.23	> -9.13	> -8.56	> -8.26

Table 5. The constraint results of Model 1.

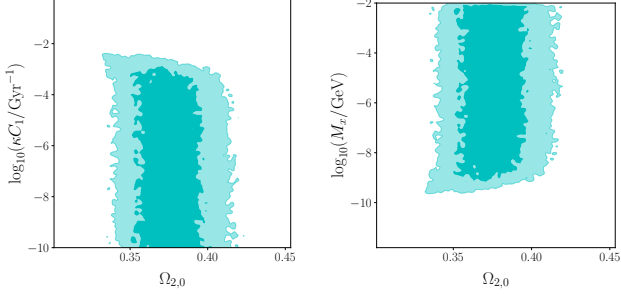


Figure 3. The constraint result from the SNe Ia + OHD data.

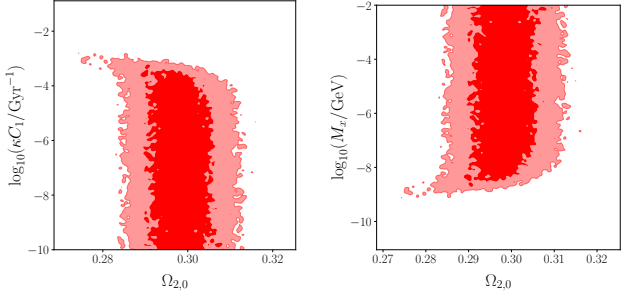


Figure 4. The constraint result from the BAO data.

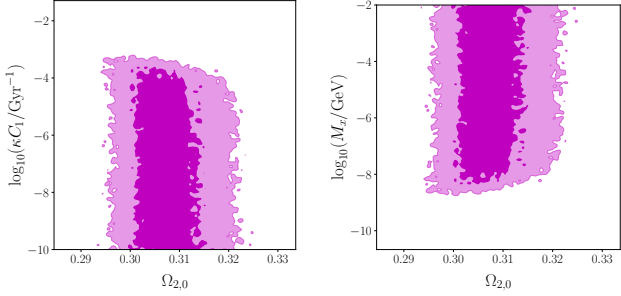


Figure 5. The constraint result from the BAO + SNe Ia + OHD data.

Fig 6 shows the difference between classical dataset ($H(z)$, SNe Ia) and newly released BAO dataset. The BAO dataset gives a strict constraint to $\Omega_{2,0} \simeq 0.3$,

lower than the SNe Ia dataset about 3σ , which gives a higher value $\Omega_{2,0} \simeq 0.4$. The constraint result to Pantheon+ SNe Ia dataset in Λ CDM model is $\Omega_M \simeq 0.33$ (Borehi et al. (2022)).

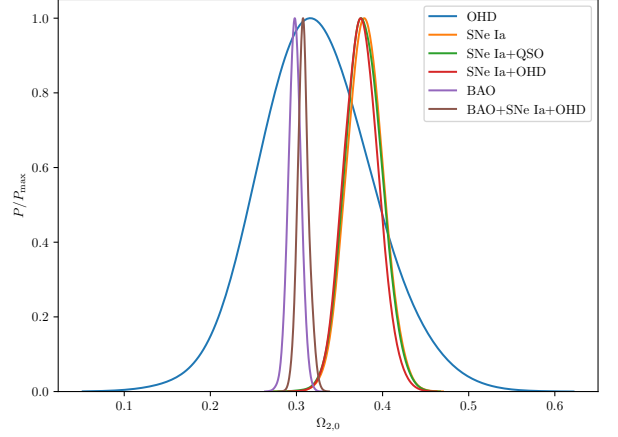


Figure 6. The probability density of $\Omega_{2,0}$ from different datasets.

4.2. Model 2: mimicking the w CDM model

The constraint results of Model 2 are shown in Table 6.

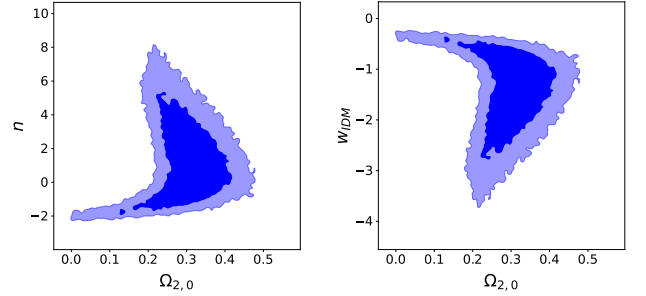


Figure 7. The constraint result from the observational $H(z)$ data.

The results from three dataset are different

5. CONCLUSIONS

APPENDIX

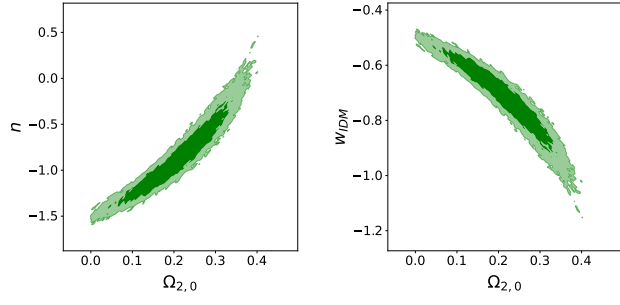


Figure 8. The constraint result from the supernovae Ia data.

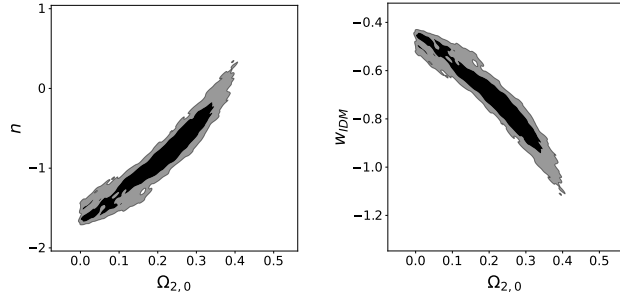


Figure 9. The constraint result from the SNe Ia + QSO data.

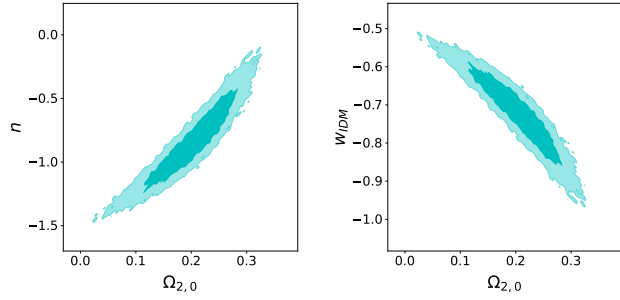


Figure 10. The constraint result from the OHD + SNe Ia data.

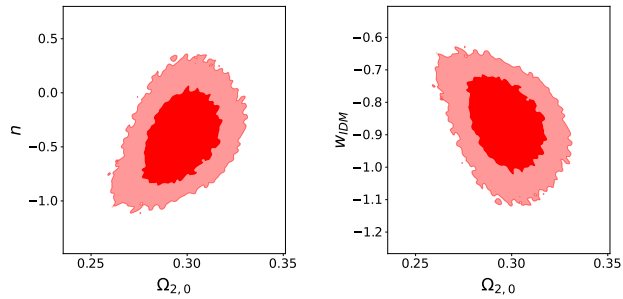


Figure 11. The constraint result from the BAO data.

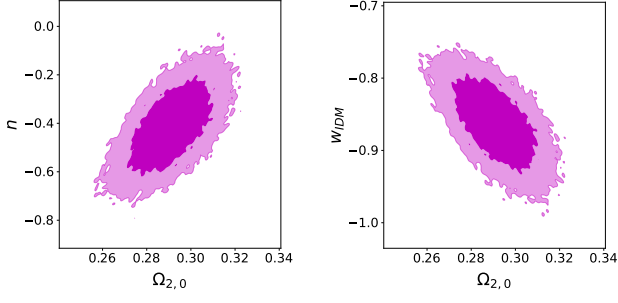


Figure 12. The constraint result from the OHD + SNe Ia + BAO data.

Model 2	OHD	SNe Ia	SNe Ia + QSO	OHD + SNe Ia	BAO	OHD + SNe Ia + BAO
$\Omega_{2,0}$	$0.299^{+0.074}_{-0.074}$	$0.216^{+0.096}_{-0.078}$	$0.208^{+0.12}_{-0.087}$	$0.202^{+0.060}_{-0.049}$	$0.296^{+0.014}_{-0.014}$	$0.291^{+0.013}_{-0.013}$
n	$1.5^{+1.4}_{-2.9}$	$-0.82^{+0.29}_{-0.44}$	$-0.85^{+0.42}_{-0.49}$	$-0.83^{+0.24}_{-0.27}$	$-0.40^{+0.29}_{-0.29}$	$-0.41^{+0.13}_{-0.13}$
w_{IDM}	$-1.5^{+1.0}_{-0.5}$	$-0.73^{+0.15}_{-0.10}$	$-0.72^{+0.16}_{-0.14}$	$-0.72^{+0.09}_{-0.08}$	$-0.87^{+0.10}_{-0.10}$	$-0.86^{+0.04}_{-0.04}$

Table 6. The constraint results of Model 2.

A. THE THEORETICAL SOLUTION OF MODEL 1

Apply the Eq.(12) to Eq.(8), we can get a simple nonlinear second-order differential equation for the redshift $z(t)$, which can be written as

$$2H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}(1+z)^2z'z'' + \kappa C_1z'^4 - 5H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}(1+z)z'^3 + 3H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2(1+z)^3z' - H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2\kappa C_1[(z+1)^4 - 1] = H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2\kappa C_1, \quad (\text{A1})$$

where the prime denotes the derivative with respect to t . The equation can be simplified as

$$2H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}y^2y'y'' + \kappa C_1y'^4 - 5H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}yy'^3 + 3H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2y^3y' - H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2\kappa C_1y^4 = 0, \quad (\text{A2})$$

where $y = z + 1$, now it is a homogeneous function and we can give the general solution as $y = \exp f$ with f a function of t , the equation now is

$$2H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}f'f'' + \kappa C_1f'^4 - 3H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}f'^3 + 3H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2f' - H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2\kappa C_1 = 0. \quad (\text{A3})$$

We use $g = f'$, which also gives $g(t) = y'/y = -H(t)$, then the equation can be written as

$$2H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}gg' + \kappa C_1g^4 - 3H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}g^3 + 3H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2g - H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2\kappa C_1 = 0. \quad (\text{A4})$$

It can be theoretically solved and the solution has a form like

$$g(t) = \mathcal{G} \left(-\frac{t}{2H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}} + \text{Const} \right), \quad (\text{A5})$$

where \mathcal{G} is the inverse function of

$$\mathcal{F}(x) = \frac{3H_0\sqrt{\Omega_{1,0}}\text{arctanh}\frac{x}{H_0\sqrt{\Omega_{1,0}}} - \kappa C_1 \log(x^2 - H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}) + \kappa C_1 \log(\kappa C_1x^2 - 3H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}x + H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}\kappa C_1)}{9H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2 - 4H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}(\kappa C_1)^2}. \quad (\text{A6})$$

In this term, $\text{arctanh}(x) \doteq \frac{1}{2} \log \left(\frac{x+1}{x-1} \right)$ when $x < -1$, and the Const is determined by the boundary condition $g(0) \rightarrow -\infty$, which is

$$\text{Const} = \mathcal{F}(-\infty) \equiv \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \mathcal{F}(x) = \frac{\kappa C_1 \ln \kappa C_1}{9H_0^4\Omega_{1,0}^2 - 4H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}(\kappa C_1)^2}. \quad (\text{A7})$$

The initial time of today t_0 can be easily given as

$$t_0 = 2H_0^2\Omega_{1,0}[\mathcal{F}(-\infty) - \mathcal{F}(-H_0)], \quad (\text{A8})$$

and the redshift z_{max} can be calculated as

$$z_{\text{max}} = \exp \left[2H_0^2\Omega_{1,0} \int_{-\infty}^{-H_0} [\mathcal{F}(-\infty) - \mathcal{F}(x)] dx + H_0 t_0 \right] - 1, \quad (\text{A9})$$

and z_{max} is also a function of $\Omega_{2,0}$, κC_1 and H_0 .

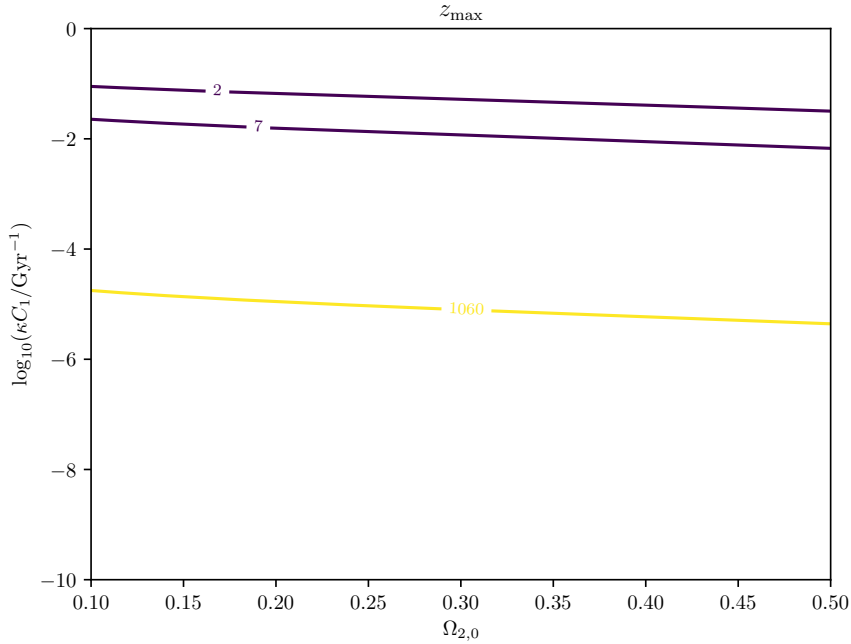


Figure 13. The redshift z_{max} as $H_0 = 70$ km/s/Mpc

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