

Quark Nuggets

Yang Bai

University of Wisconsin-Madison

NOPP2024, July 21, 2024

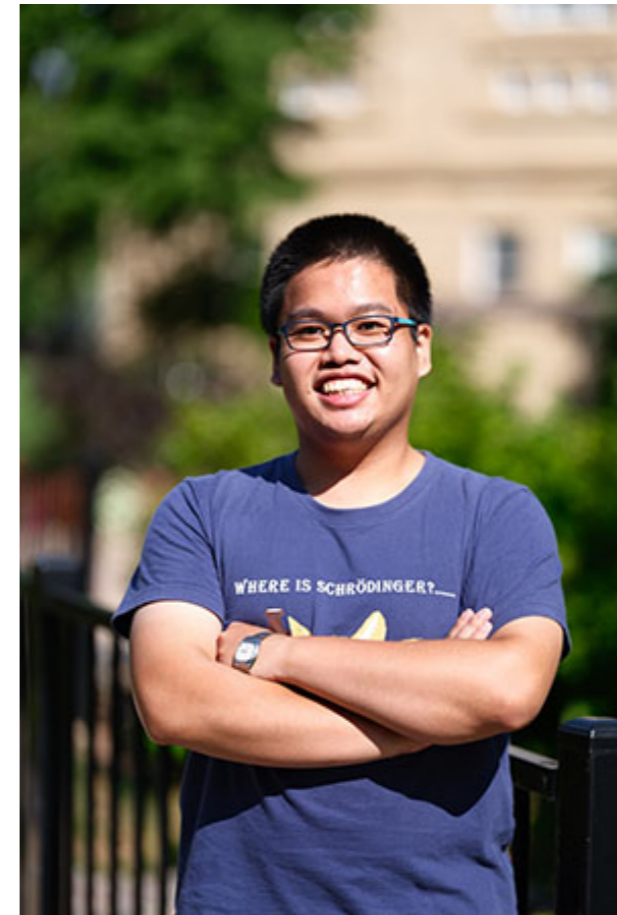




Collaborators



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Working in progress + 2306.17160



What is a quark nugget?



Collapsed Nuclei*

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(Received 29 March 1971)

We discuss the observational consistency, possible properties, and detection of collapsed nuclei C_A . These may be considered as elementary particles with mass number $A > 1$ and of much smaller radius than ordinary nuclei N_A . The existence of C_A of (perhaps much) lower energy than N_A is observationally consistent if N_A are very long-lived isomers against collapse because of a "saturation" barrier between C_A and N_A . Barrier-penetrability estimates show that sufficiently long lifetimes $\gtrsim 10^{31}$ sec are plausible for $A \gtrsim 16-40$. The properties of C_A are discussed using composite baryon and quark models; small charges and hypercharges and, especially, neutral C_A are possible. C_A can be effectively a source or sink of baryons. Some astrophysical implications are briefly discussed, in particular the possible large scale presence of C_A and the possibility that accelerated collapse in massive objects may be a source of energy comparable to the rest mass.



Fermion-field nontopological solitons. II. Models for hadrons*

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(Received 9 May 1977)

We examine the possibility, and its consequences, that in a relativistic local field theory, consisting of color quarks q , scalar gluon σ , color gauge field V_μ , and color Higgs field ϕ , the mass of the soliton solution may be much lower than any mass of the plane-wave solutions; i.e., the quark mass m_q , the gluon mass m_σ , etc. There appears a rather clean separation between the physics of these low-mass solitons and that of the high-energy excitations, in the range of m_q and m_σ , provided that the parameters $\xi \equiv (\mu/m_q)^2$ and $\eta \equiv \mu/m_\sigma$ are both $\ll 1$, where μ is an overall low-energy scale appropriate for the solitons [but the ratio η/ξ is assumed to be $O(1)$, though otherwise arbitrary]. Under very general assumptions, we show that, independently of the number of parameters in the original Lagrangian, the mathematical problem of finding the quasiclassical soliton solutions reduces, through scaling, to that of a simple set of two coupled first-order differential equations, neither of which contains any explicit free parameters. The general properties and the numerical solutions of this reduced set of differential equations are given. The resulting solitons exhibit physical characteristics very similar to those of a “gas bubble” immersed in a “medium”: there is a constant surface tension and a constant pressure exerted by the medium on the gas; in addition, there are the “thermodynamical” energy of the gas and the related gas pressure, which are determined by the solutions of the reduced equations. Both a SLAC-type bag and the Creutz-Soh version of the MIT bag may appear, but only as special limiting cases. These soliton solutions are applied to the physical hadrons; their static properties are calculated and, within a 10–15% accuracy, agree with observations.



IUPAC Periodic Table of the Elements and Isotopes

hydrogen H 1 1.008 [1.007 84, 1.008 11]																	helium He 2 4.002 602(2)															
lithium Li 3 6.94 [6.938, 6.997]	beryllium Be 4 9.012 1831(5)																	boron B 5 10.81 [10.806, 10.821]	carbon C 6 12.011 [12.0096, 12.0116]	nitrogen N 7 14.007 [14.006 43, 14.007 28]	oxygen O 8 15.999 [15.999 03, 15.999 77]	fluorine F 9 18.998 403 163(6)	neon Ne 10 20.1797(6)									
sodium Na 11 22.989 769 28(2)	magnesium Mg 12 24.305 [24.304, 24.307]																	aluminium Al 13 26.981 5385(7)	silicon Si 14 28.085 [28.084, 28.086]	phosphorus P 15 30.973 761 998(5)	sulfur S 16 32.06 [32.059, 32.076]	chlorine Cl 17 35.45 [35.446, 35.457]	argon Ar 18 39.95 [39.792, 39.963]									
potassium K 19 39.0983(1)	calcium Ca 20 40.078(4)	scandium Sc 21 44.955 908(5)	titanium Ti 22 47.867(1)	vanadium V 23 50.9415(1)	chromium Cr 24 51.9961(6)	manganese Mn 25 54.938 043(2)	iron Fe 26 55.845(2)	cobalt Co 27 58.933 194(4)	nickel Ni 28 58.6934(4)	copper Cu 29 63.546(3)	zinc Zn 30 65.38(2)	gallium Ga 31 69.723(1)	germanium Ge 32 72.630(8)	arsenic As 33 74.921 595(6)	selenium Se 34 78.971(8)	bromine Br 35 79.904 [79.901, 79.907]	krypton Kr 36 83.798(2)															
rubidium Rb 37 85.4678(3)	strontium Sr 38 87.62(1)	yttrium Y 39 88.905 84(2)	zirconium Zr 40 91.224(2)	niobium Nb 41 92.906 37(2)	molybdenum Mo 42 95.95(1)	technetium Tc 43 ○	ruthenium Ru 44 101.07(2)	rhodium Rh 45 102.905 49(2)	palladium Pd 46 106.42(1)	silver Ag 47 107.8682(2)	cadmium Cd 48 112.414(4)	indium In 49 114.818(1)	tin Sn 50 118.710(7)	antimony Sb 51 121.760(1)	tellurium Te 52 127.60(3)	iodine I 53 126.904 47(3)	xenon Xe 54 131.293(6)															
caesium Cs 55 132.905 451 96(6)	barium Ba 56 137.327(7)																	hafnium Hf 72 178.49(2)	tantalum Ta 73 180.947 88(2)	tungsten W 74 183.84(1)	rhenium Re 75 186.207(1)	osmium Os 76 190.23(3)	iridium Ir 77 192.217(2)	platinum Pt 78 195.084(9)	gold Au 79 196.966 570(4)	mercury Hg 80 200.592(3)	thallium Tl 81 204.38 [204.382, 204.385]	lead Pb 82 207.2(1)	bismuth Bi 83 208.980 40(1)	polonium Po 84 ○	astatine At 85 ○	radon Rn 86 ○
francium Fr 87 ○	radium Ra 88 ○																	rutherfordium Rf 104 ○	dubnium Db 105 ○	seaborgium Sg 106 ○	bohrium Bh 107 ○	hassium Hs 108 ○	meitnerium Mt 109 ○	darmstadtium Ds 110 ○	roentgenium Rg 111 ○	copernicium Cn 112 ○	nihonium Nh 113 ○	flerovium Fl 114 ○	moscovium Mc 115 ○	livermorium Lv 116 ○	tennessine Ts 117 ○	oganeson Og 118 ○

Element has two or more isotopes that are used to determine its atomic weight. Variations are well known, and the standard atomic weight is given as lower and upper bounds within square brackets, [].

Element has two or more isotopes that are used to determine its standard atomic weight. The isotopic abundance and atomic weights vary in normal materials, but upper and lower bounds of the standard atomic weight have not been assigned by IUPAC.

Element has only one isotope that is used to determine its standard atomic weight. Thus, the standard atomic weight is invariant and is given as a single value with an IUPAC evaluated uncertainty.

Element has no standard atomic weight because all of its isotopes are radioactive and, in normal materials, no isotope occurs with a characteristic isotopic abundance from which a standard atomic weight can be determined.

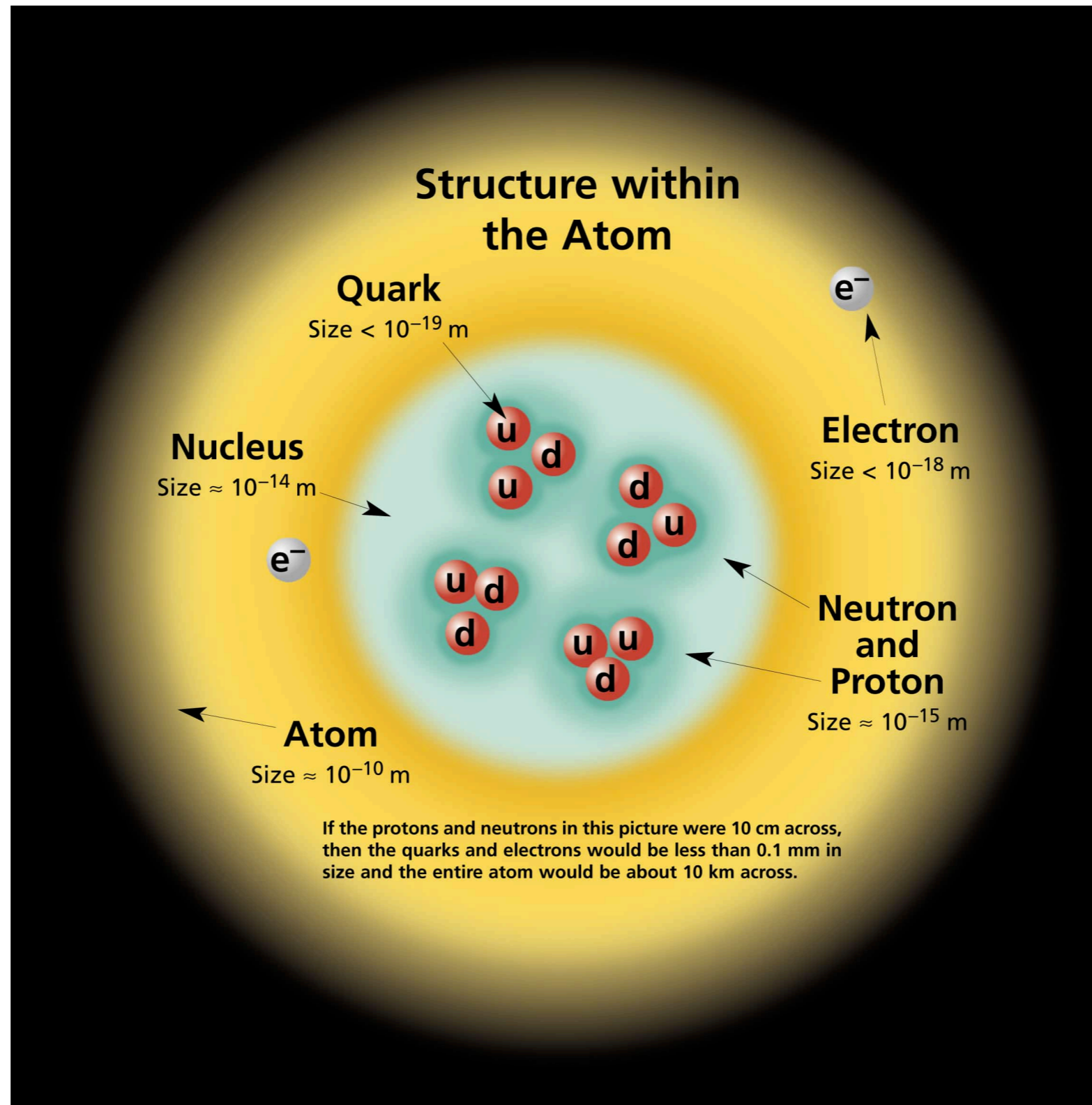


lanthanum La 57 138.905 47(7)	cerium Ce 58 140.116(1)	praseodymium Pr 59 140.907 66(1)	neodymium Nd 60 144.242(3)	promethium Pm 61 ○	samarium Sm 62 150.36(2)	europium Eu 63 151.964(1)	gadolinium Gd 64 157.25(3)	terbium Tb 65 158.925 354(8)	dysprosium Dy 66 162.500(1)	holmium Ho 67 164.930 328(7)	erbium Er 68 167.259(3)	thulium Tm 69 168.934 218(6)	ytterbium Yb 70 173.045(10)	lutetium Lu 71 174.9668(1)
actinium Ac 89 ○	thorium Th 90 232.0377(4)	protactinium Pa 91 231.036 88(1)	uranium U 92 238.028 91(3)	neptunium Np 93 ○	plutonium Pu 94 ○	americium Am 95 ○	curium Cm 96 ○	berkelium Bk 97 ○	californium Cf 98 ○	einsteinium Es 99 ○	fermium Fm 100 ○	mendelevium Md 101 ○	nobelium No 102 ○	lawrencium Lr 103 ○

Standard atomic weights are the best estimates by IUPAC of atomic weights that are found in normal materials, which are terrestrial materials that are reasonably possible sources for elements and their compounds in commerce, industry, or science. They are determined using all stable isotopes and selected radioactive isotopes (having relatively long half-lives and characteristic terrestrial isotopic compositions). Isotopes are considered stable (non-radioactive) if evidence for radioactive decay has not been detected experimentally.

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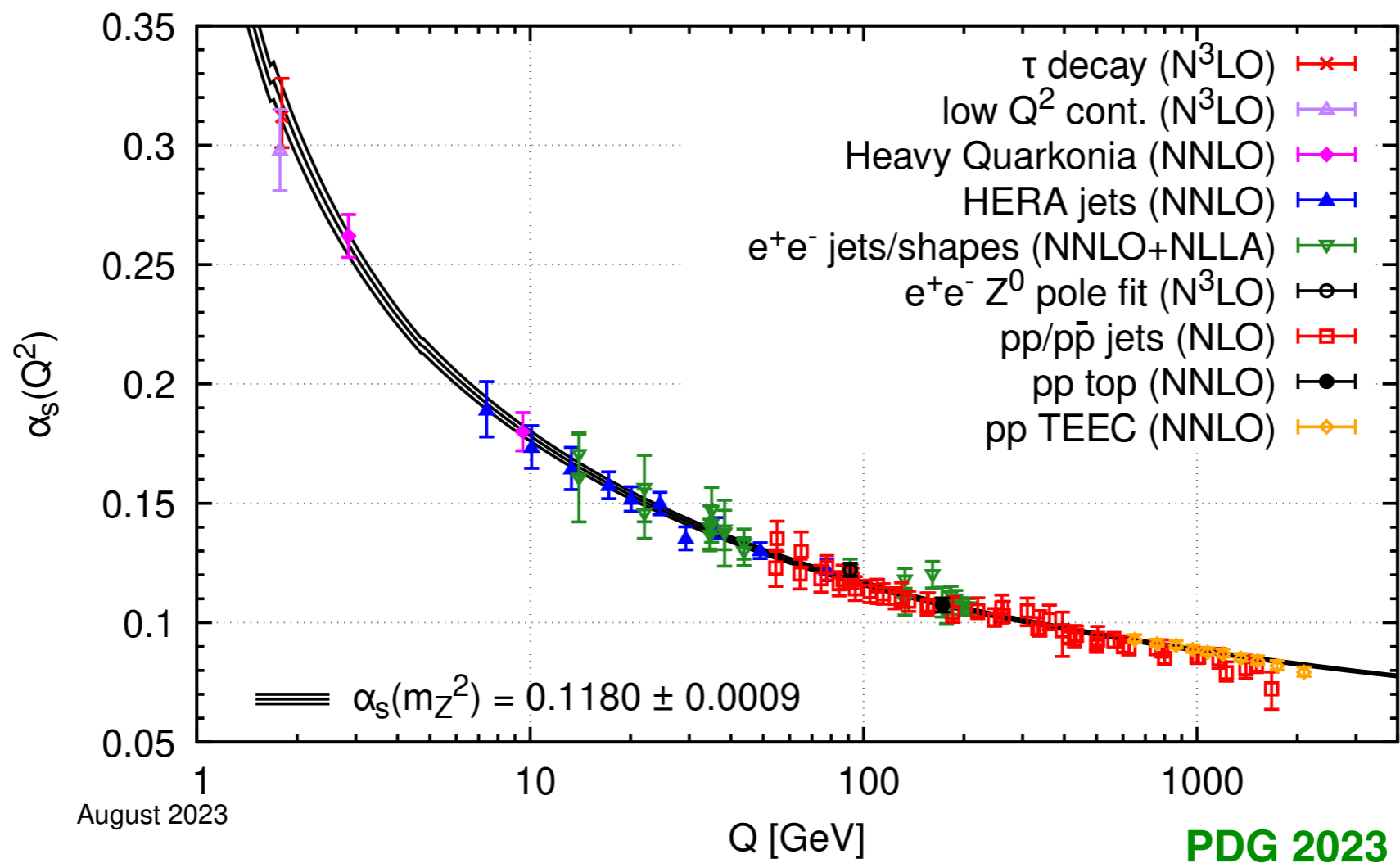
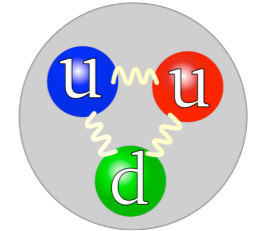
For the interactive version see ISOTOPESMATTER.COM





Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD)

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{QCD}} = \sum_q \bar{\psi}_q (i D_\mu \gamma^\mu - m_q) \psi_q - \frac{1}{4} G_{\mu\nu}^a G^{a\mu\nu}$$

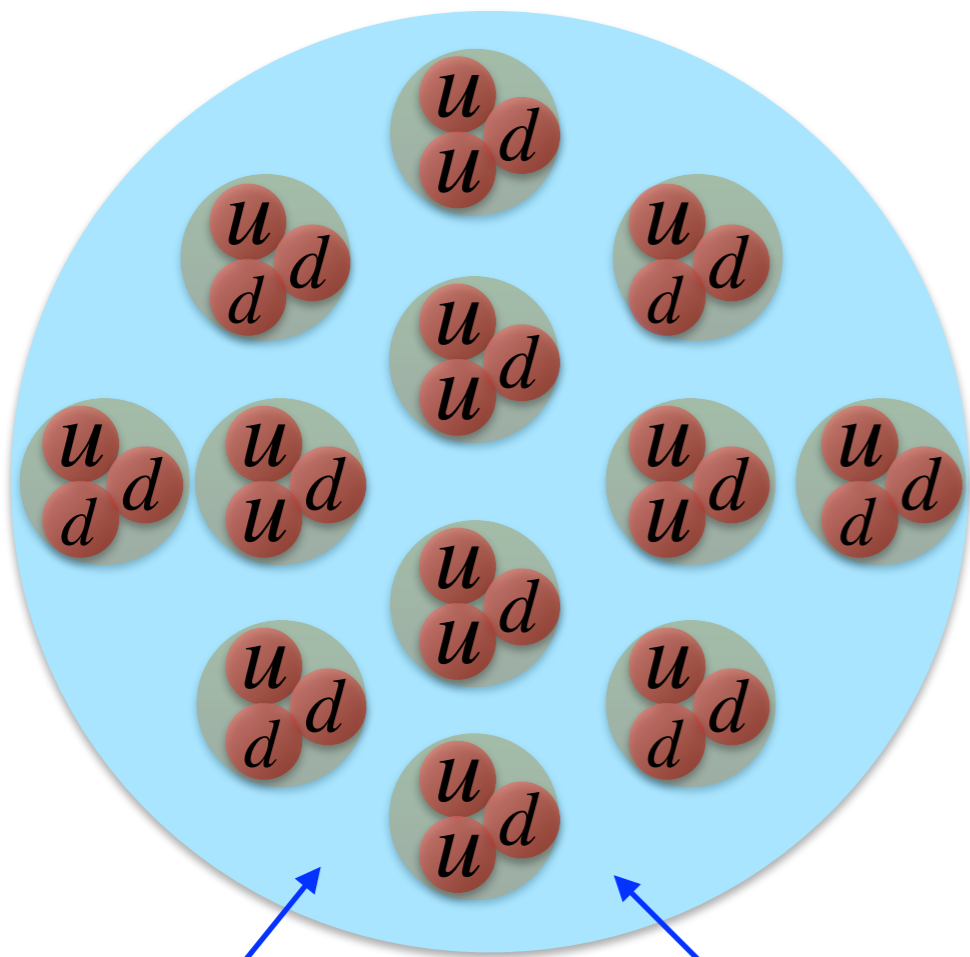


vacuum: $\langle \bar{\psi}_q \psi_q \rangle \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^3$ $\langle G_{\mu\nu}^a G^{a\mu\nu} \rangle \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$



Ordinary Nucleus

$$\frac{A}{Z} N$$

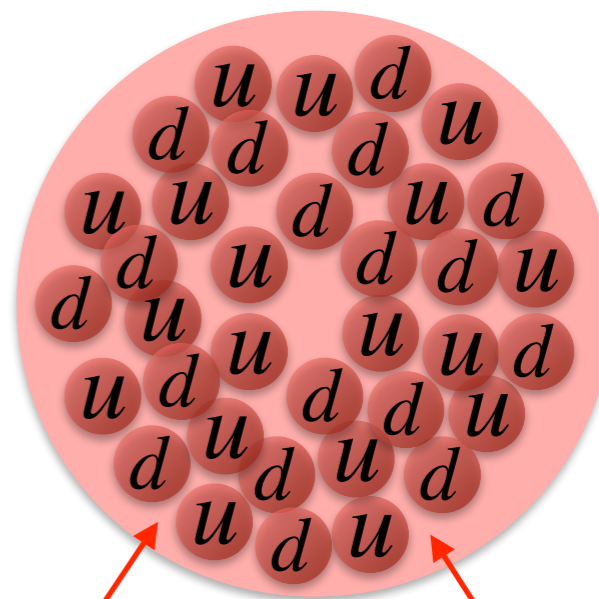


$$\langle \bar{\Psi}_q \Psi_q \rangle \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^3$$

$$\langle G_{\mu\nu}^a G^{a\mu\nu} \rangle \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$$

Quark Nugget

$$\frac{A}{Z} Q$$



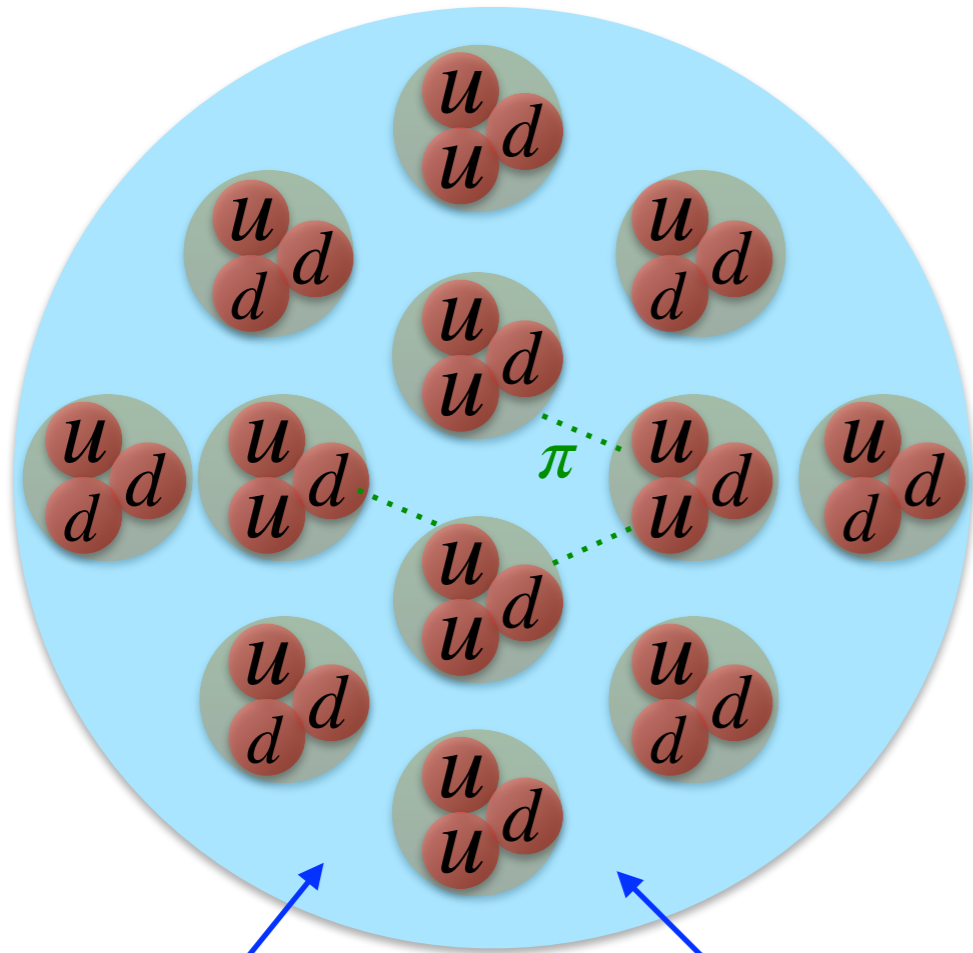
$$\langle \bar{\Psi}_q \Psi_q \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle G_{\mu\nu}^a G^{a\mu\nu} \rangle = 0$$



Ordinary Nucleus

$$\frac{A}{Z} N$$

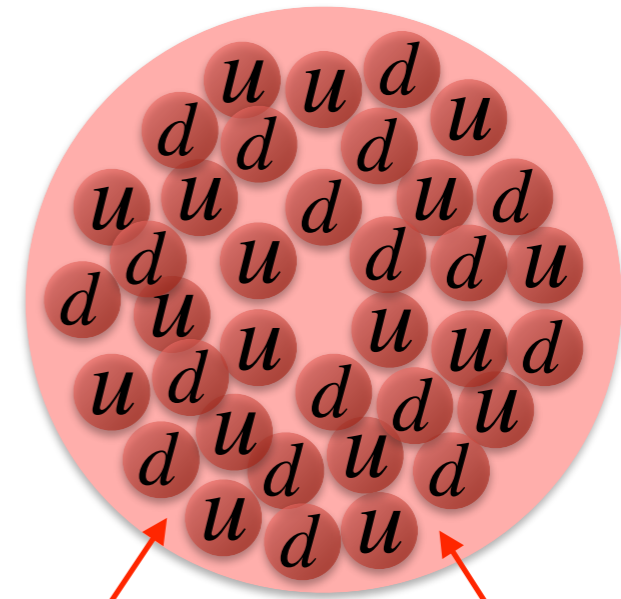


$$\langle \bar{\Psi}_q \Psi_q \rangle \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^3$$

$$\langle G_{\mu\nu}^a G^{a\mu\nu} \rangle \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$$

Quark Nugget

$$\frac{A}{Z} Q$$



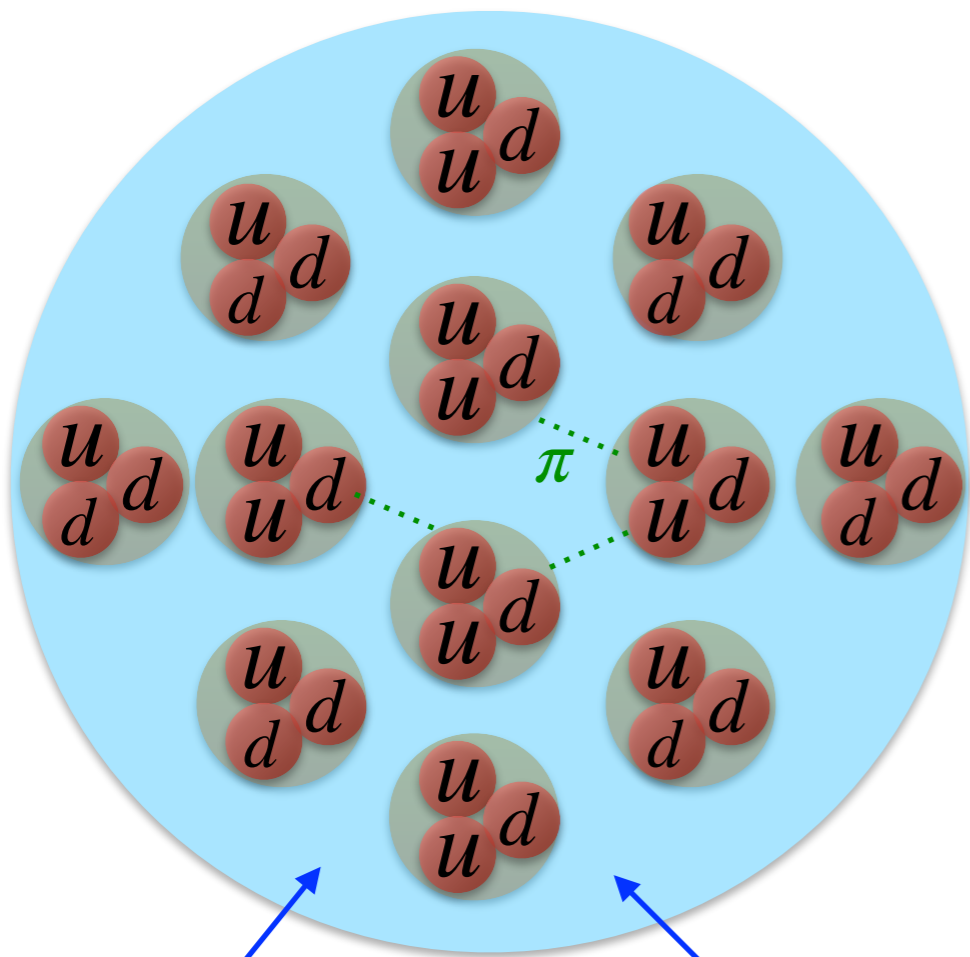
$$\langle \bar{\Psi}_q \Psi_q \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle G_{\mu\nu}^a G^{a\mu\nu} \rangle = 0$$



Ordinary Nucleus

$$\frac{A}{Z} N$$

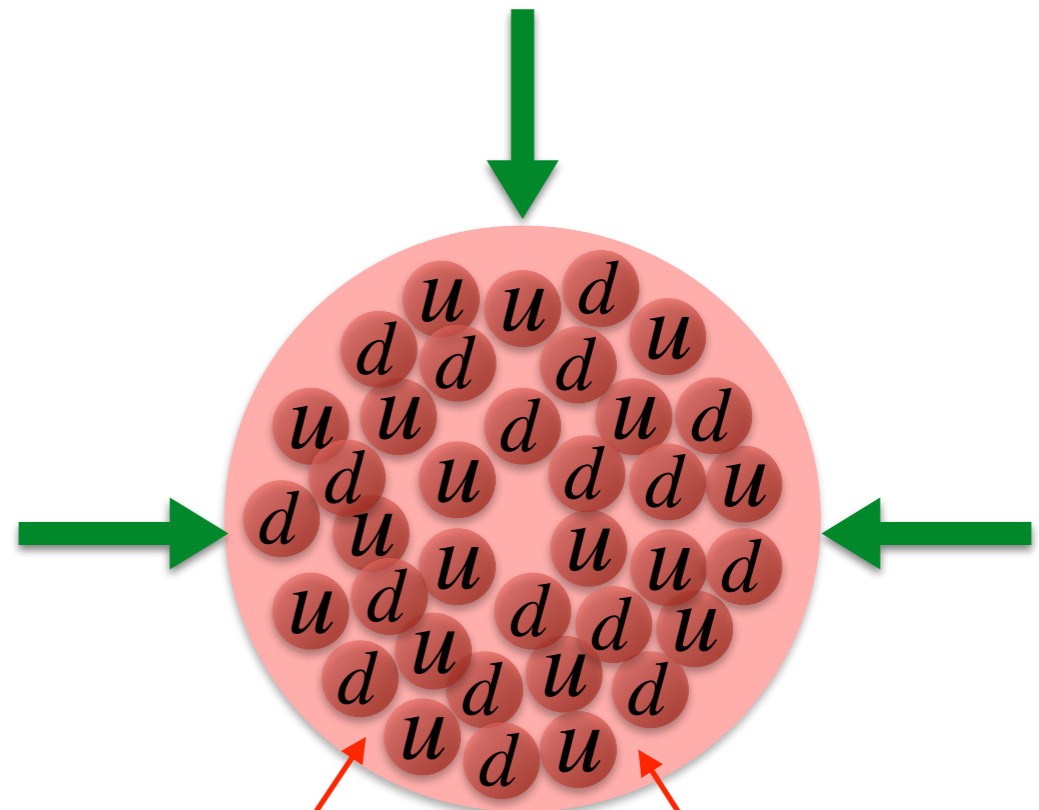


$$\langle \bar{\Psi}_q \Psi_q \rangle \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^3$$

$$\langle G_{\mu\nu}^a G^{a\mu\nu} \rangle \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$$

Quark Nugget

$$\frac{A}{Z} Q$$

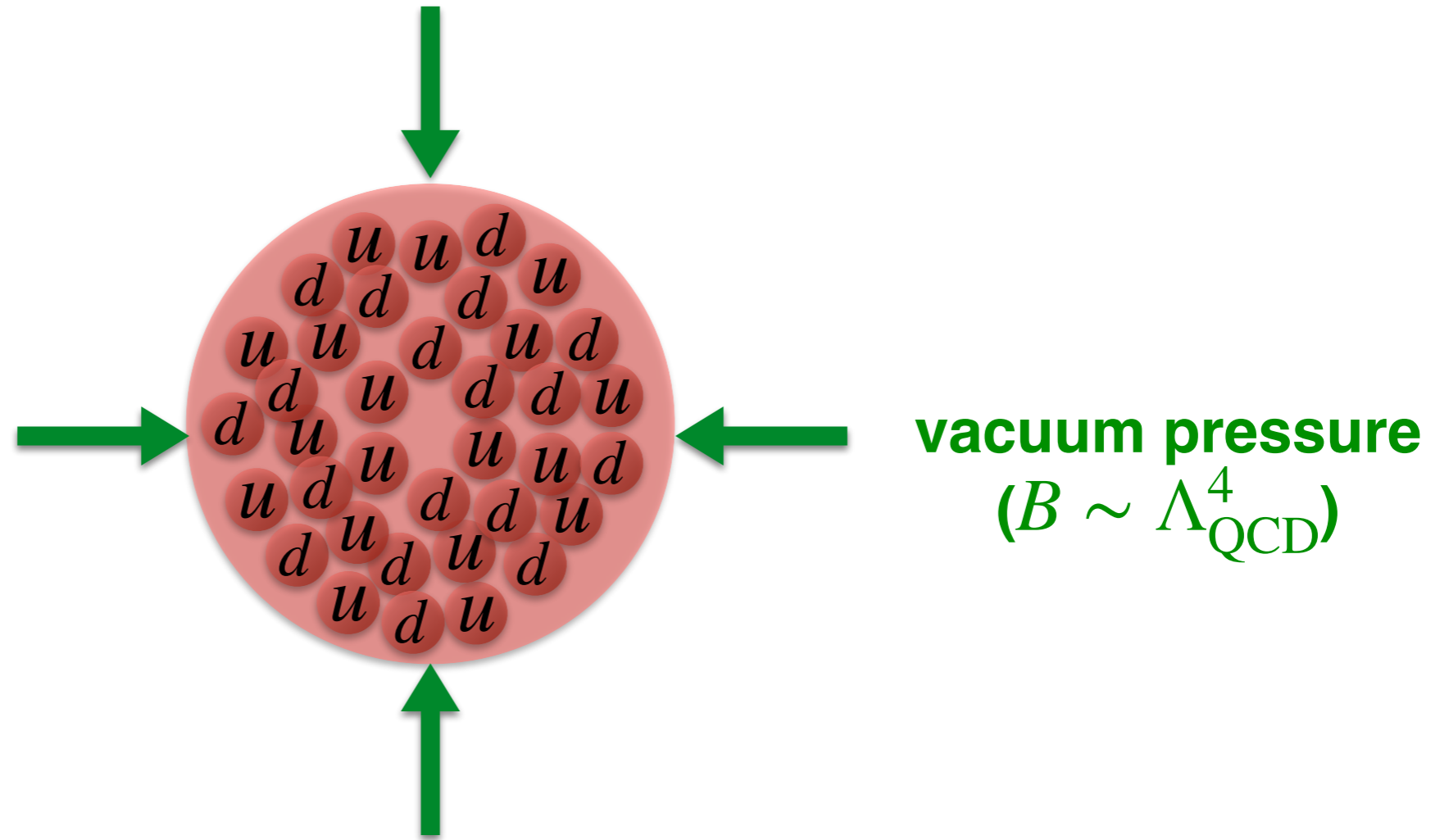


$$\langle \bar{\Psi}_q \Psi_q \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle G_{\mu\nu}^a G^{a\mu\nu} \rangle = 0$$



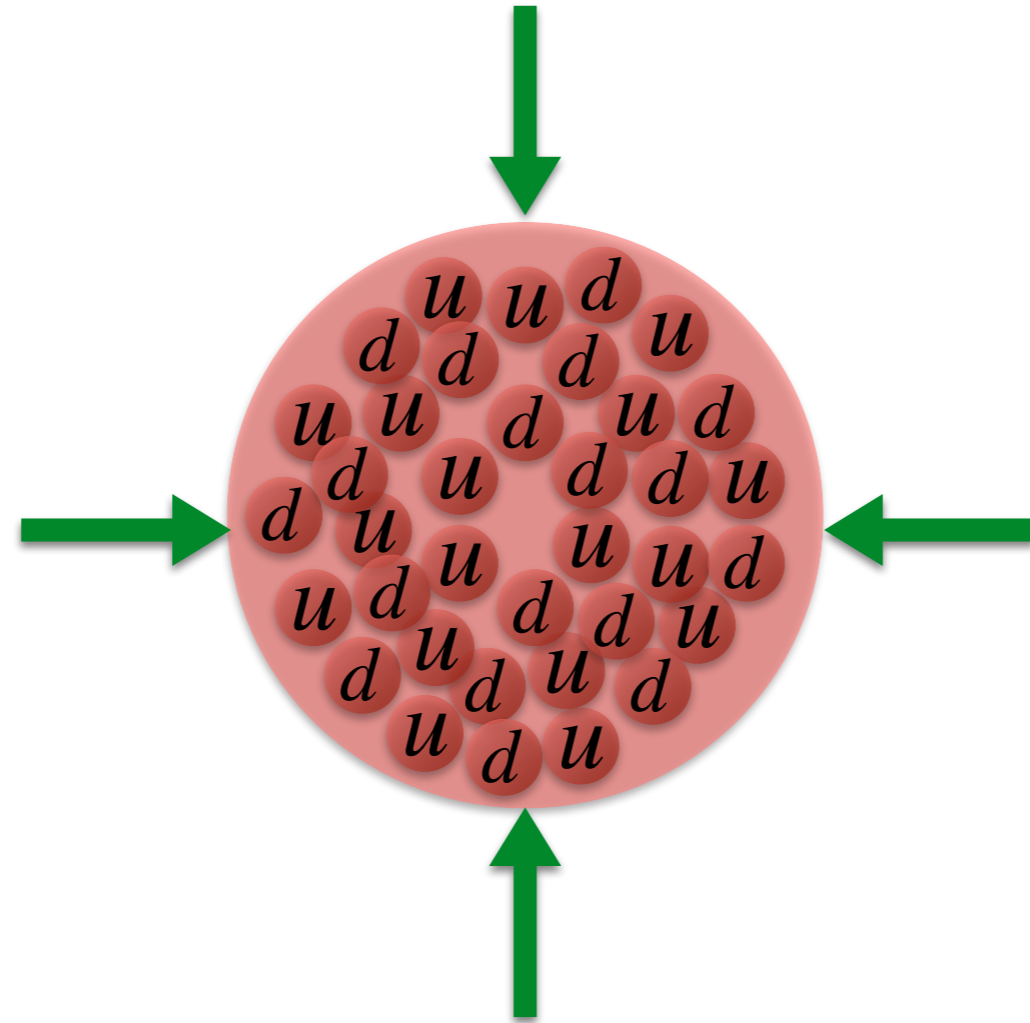
Degenerate Fermi gas





Degenerate Fermi gas

$$n \propto p_F^3$$

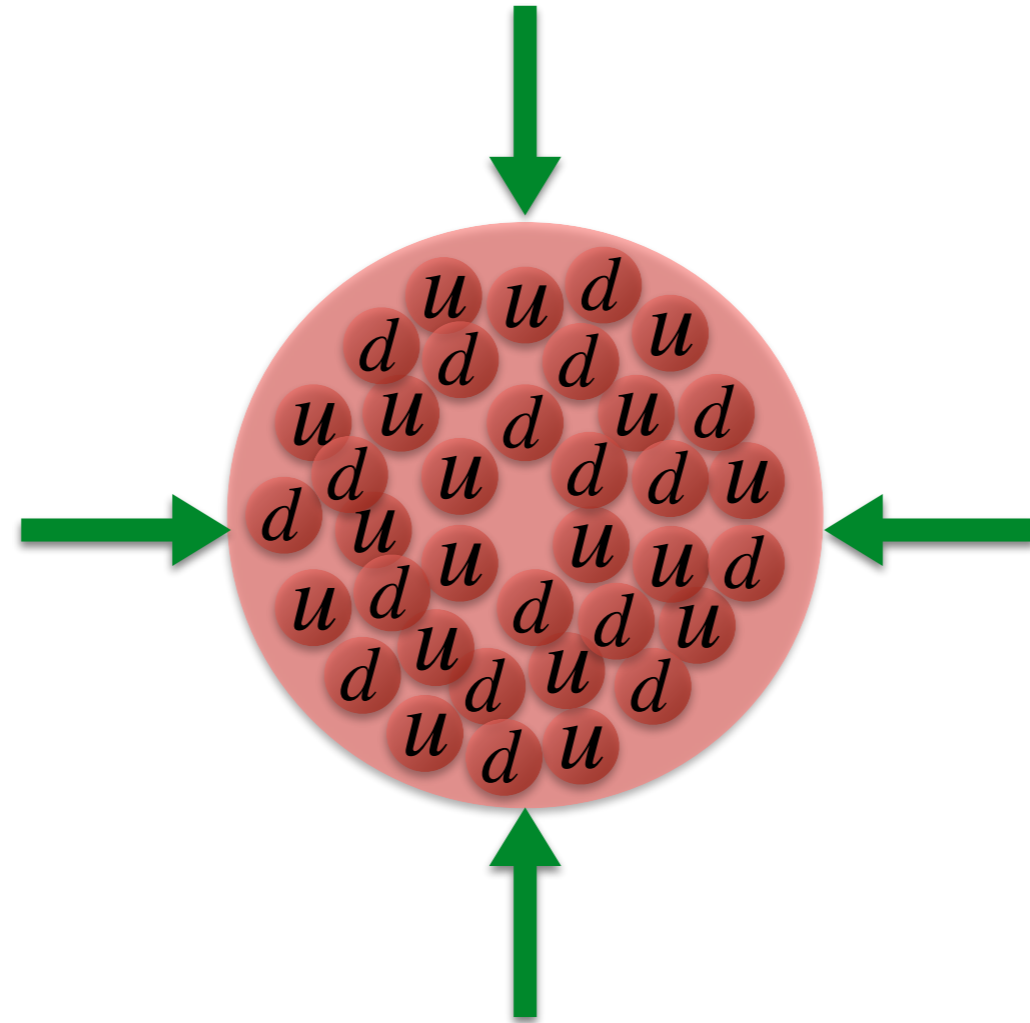


vacuum pressure
($B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$)



Degenerate Fermi gas

$$n \propto p_F^3$$
$$A \propto R^3 n$$

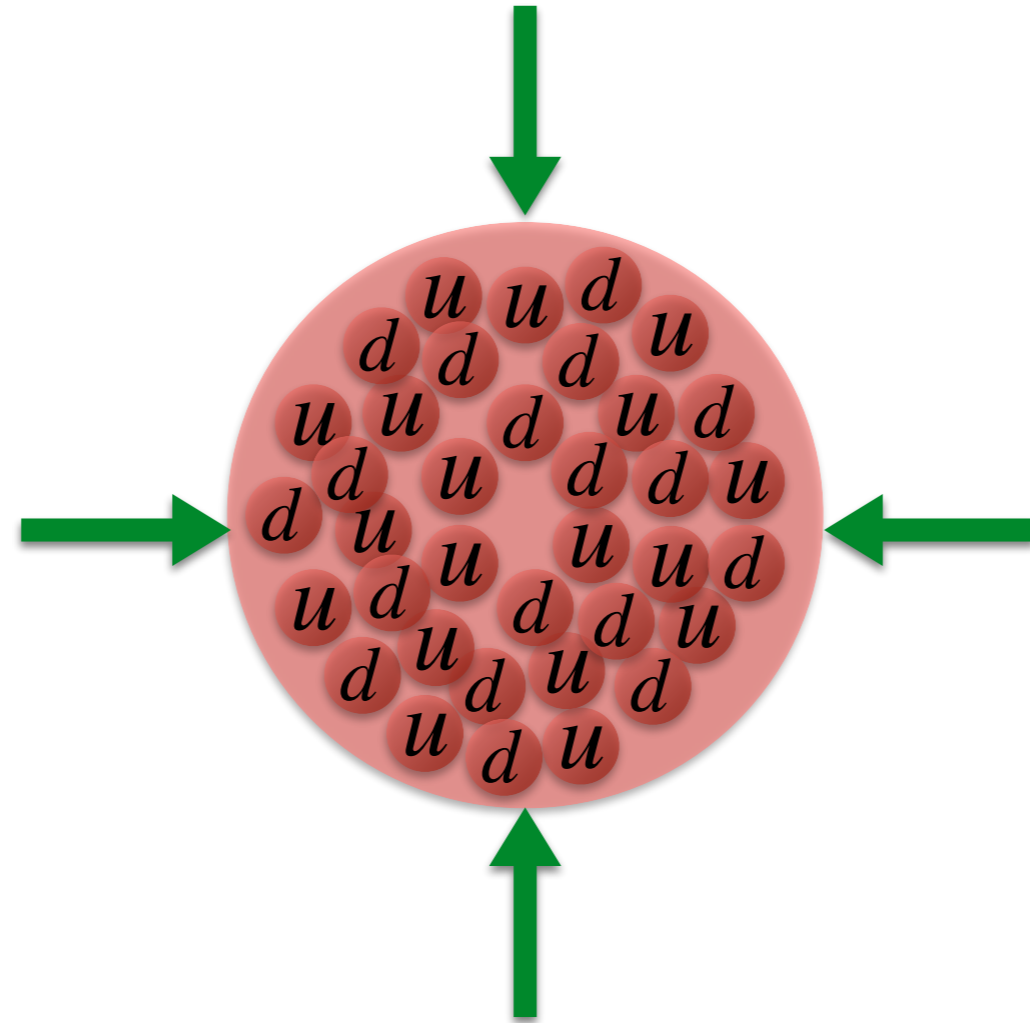


vacuum pressure
($B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$)



Degenerate Fermi gas

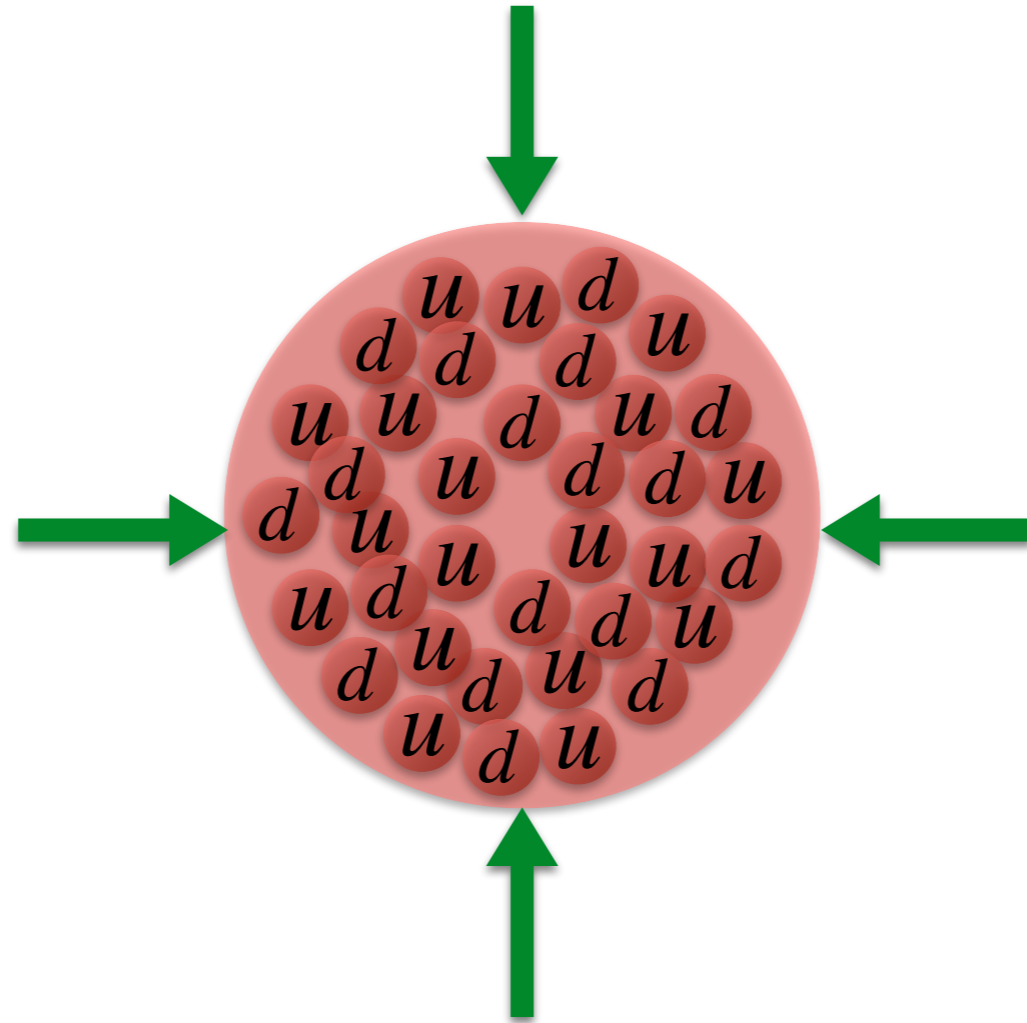
$$n \propto p_F^3$$
$$A \propto R^3 n$$
$$p_F \propto A^{1/3} R^{-1}$$



vacuum pressure
($B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$)



Degenerate Fermi gas



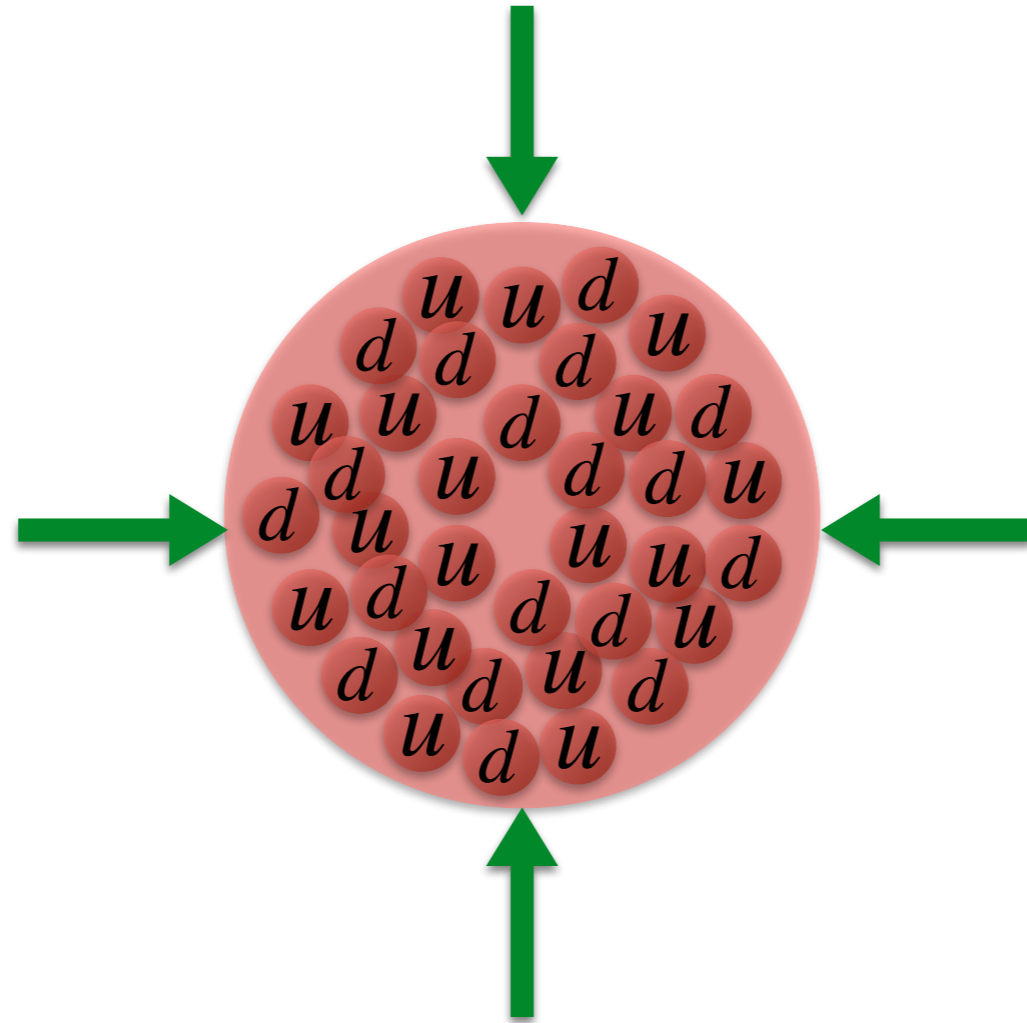
vacuum pressure
($B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$)

$$\begin{aligned}n &\propto p_F^3 \\A &\propto R^3 n \\p_F &\propto A^{1/3} R^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

$$E_{\text{kin}} \propto R^3 p_F^4 \propto A^{4/3} R^{-1}$$



Degenerate Fermi gas



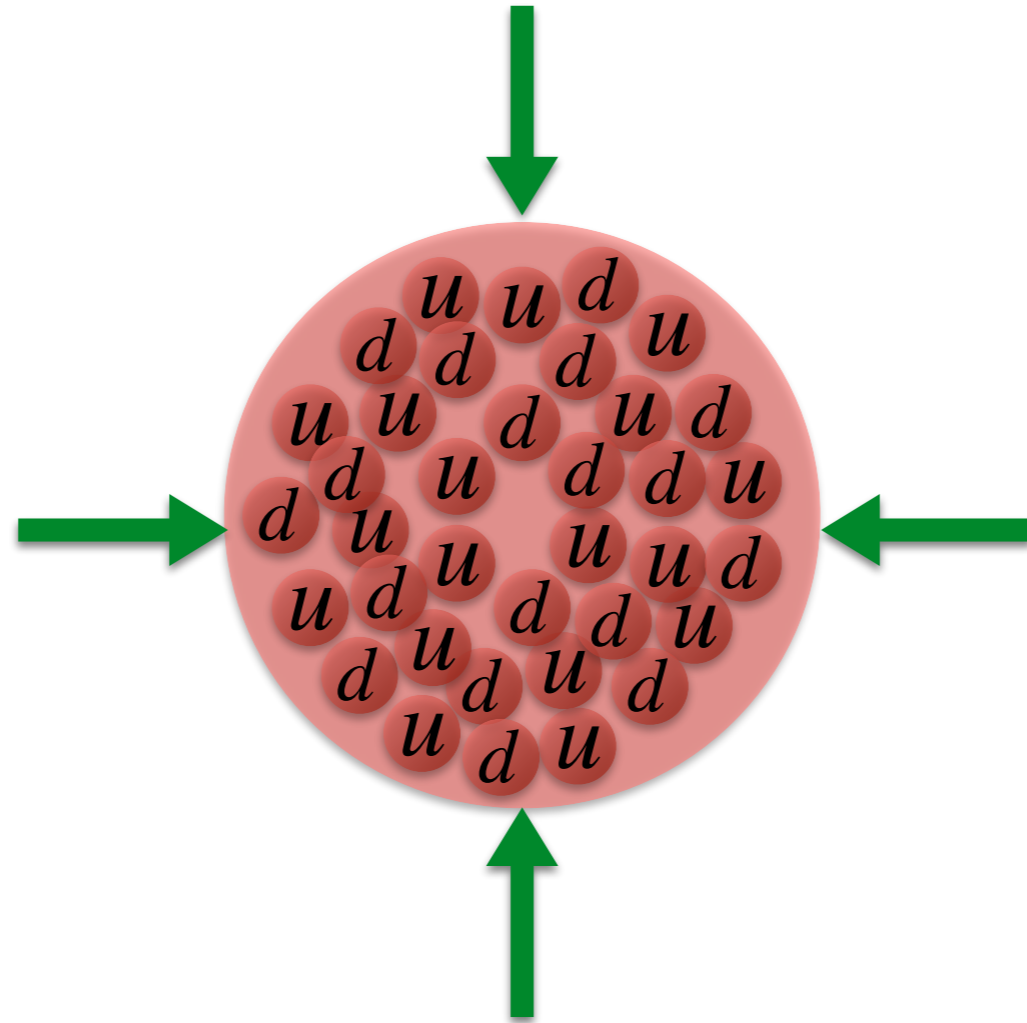
vacuum pressure
($B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$)

$$\begin{aligned} n &\propto p_F^3 \\ A &\propto R^3 n \\ p_F &\propto A^{1/3} R^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$E_{\text{kin}} \propto R^3 p_F^4 \propto A^{4/3} R^{-1} \quad E_{\text{vac}} \propto R^3 B$$



Degenerate Fermi gas



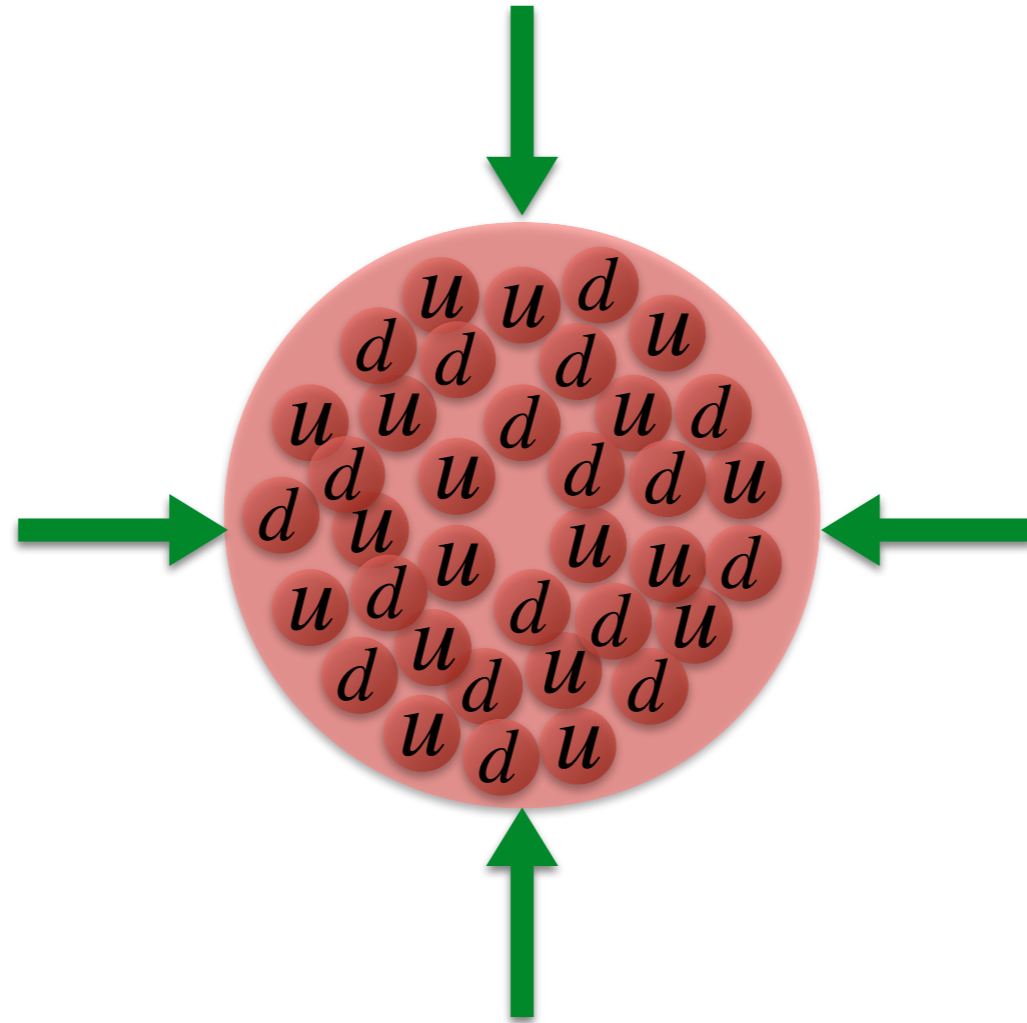
vacuum pressure
($B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$)

$$\begin{aligned}n &\propto p_F^3 \\A &\propto R^3 n \\p_F &\propto A^{1/3} R^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

$$E_{\text{kin}} \propto R^3 p_F^4 \propto A^{4/3} R^{-1} \quad E_{\text{vac}} \propto R^3 B \quad E_{\text{tot}} = E_{\text{kin}} + E_{\text{vac}}$$



Degenerate Fermi gas



vacuum pressure
 $(B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4)$

$$n \propto p_F^3$$

$$A \propto R^3 n$$

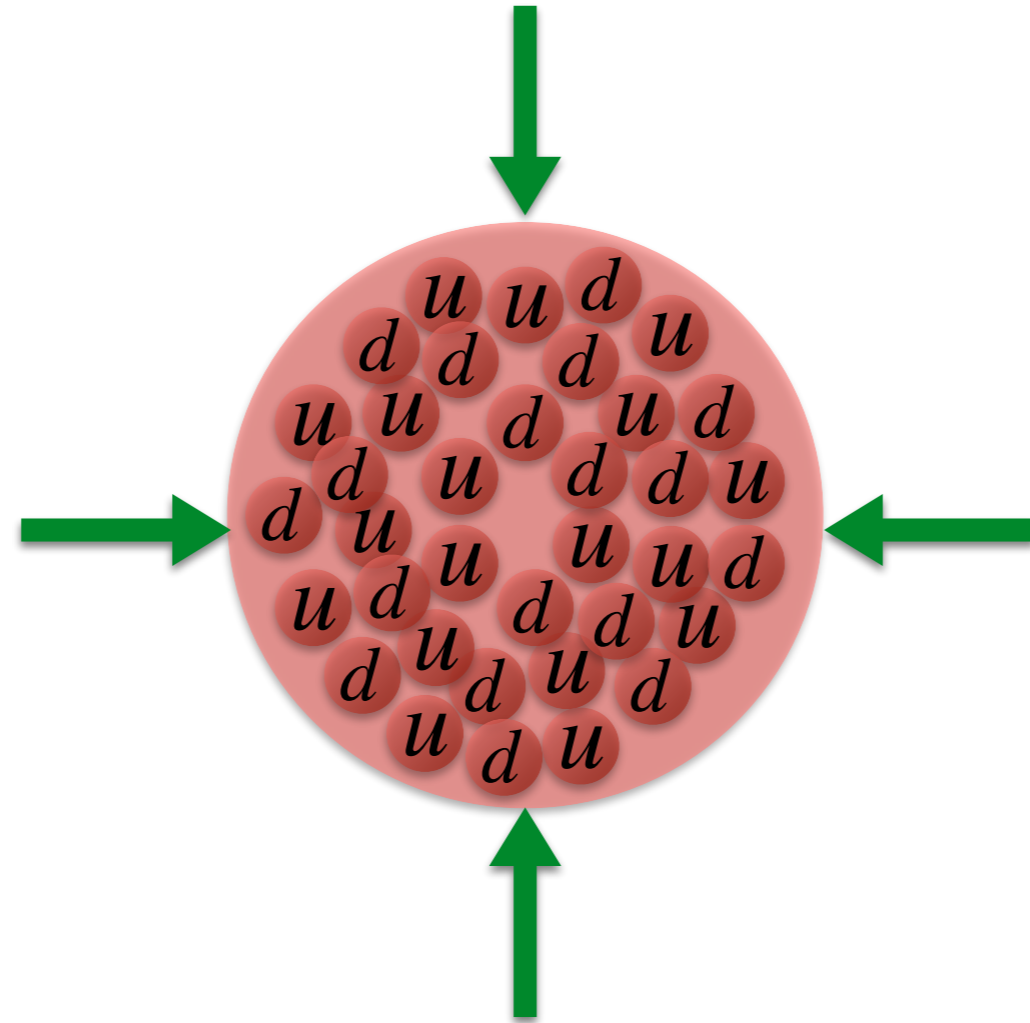
$$p_F \propto A^{1/3} R^{-1}$$

$$E_{\text{kin}} \propto R^3 p_F^4 \propto A^{4/3} R^{-1} \quad E_{\text{vac}} \propto R^3 B \quad E_{\text{tot}} = E_{\text{kin}} + E_{\text{vac}}$$

$$R_{\text{min}} \propto B^{-1/4} A^{1/3}$$



Degenerate Fermi gas



vacuum pressure
 $(B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4)$

$$n \propto p_F^3$$

$$A \propto R^3 n$$

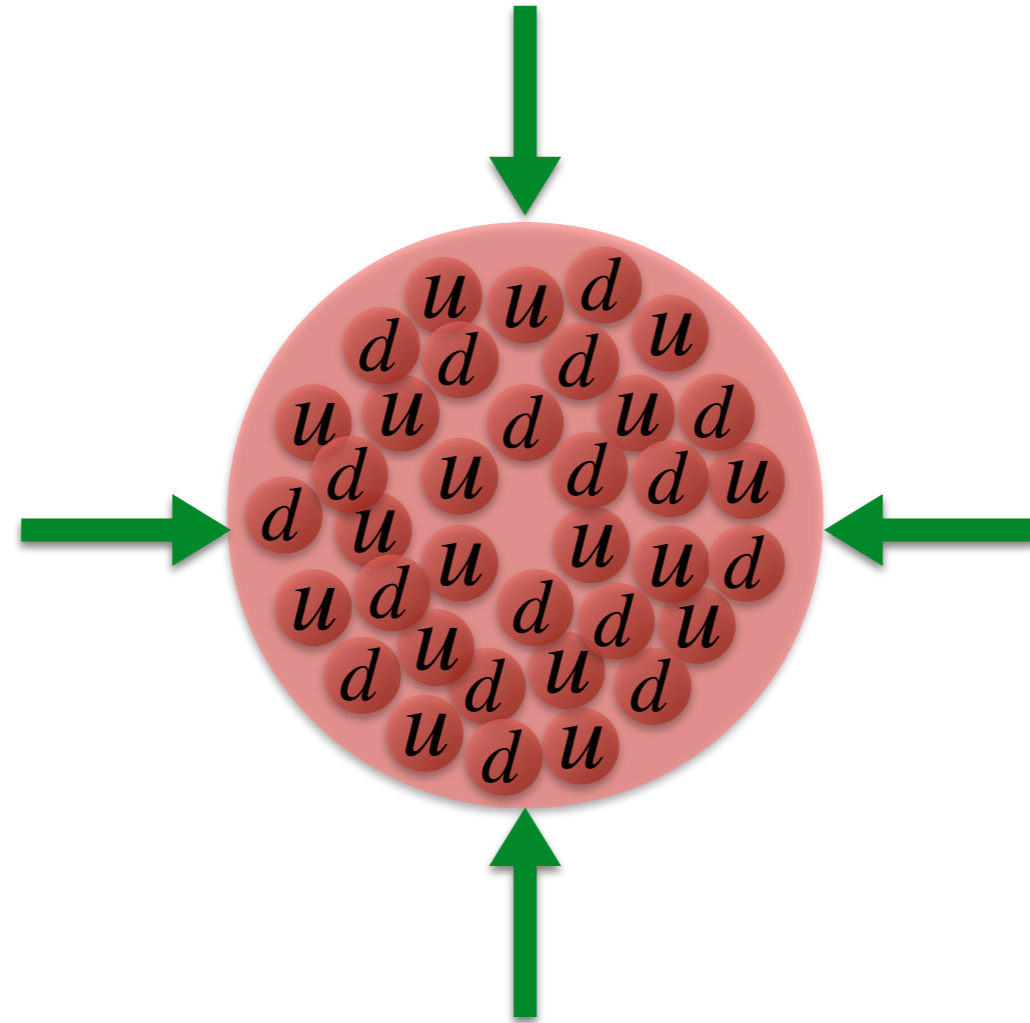
$$p_F \propto A^{1/3} R^{-1}$$

$$E_{\text{kin}} \propto R^3 p_F^4 \propto A^{4/3} R^{-1} \quad E_{\text{vac}} \propto R^3 B \quad E_{\text{tot}} = E_{\text{kin}} + E_{\text{vac}}$$

$$R_{\text{min}} \propto B^{-1/4} A^{1/3} \quad E_{\text{tot,min}}/A = 3 \times 2^{1/4} \pi^{1/2} (2/n_f)^{1/4} B^{1/4}$$



Degenerate Fermi gas



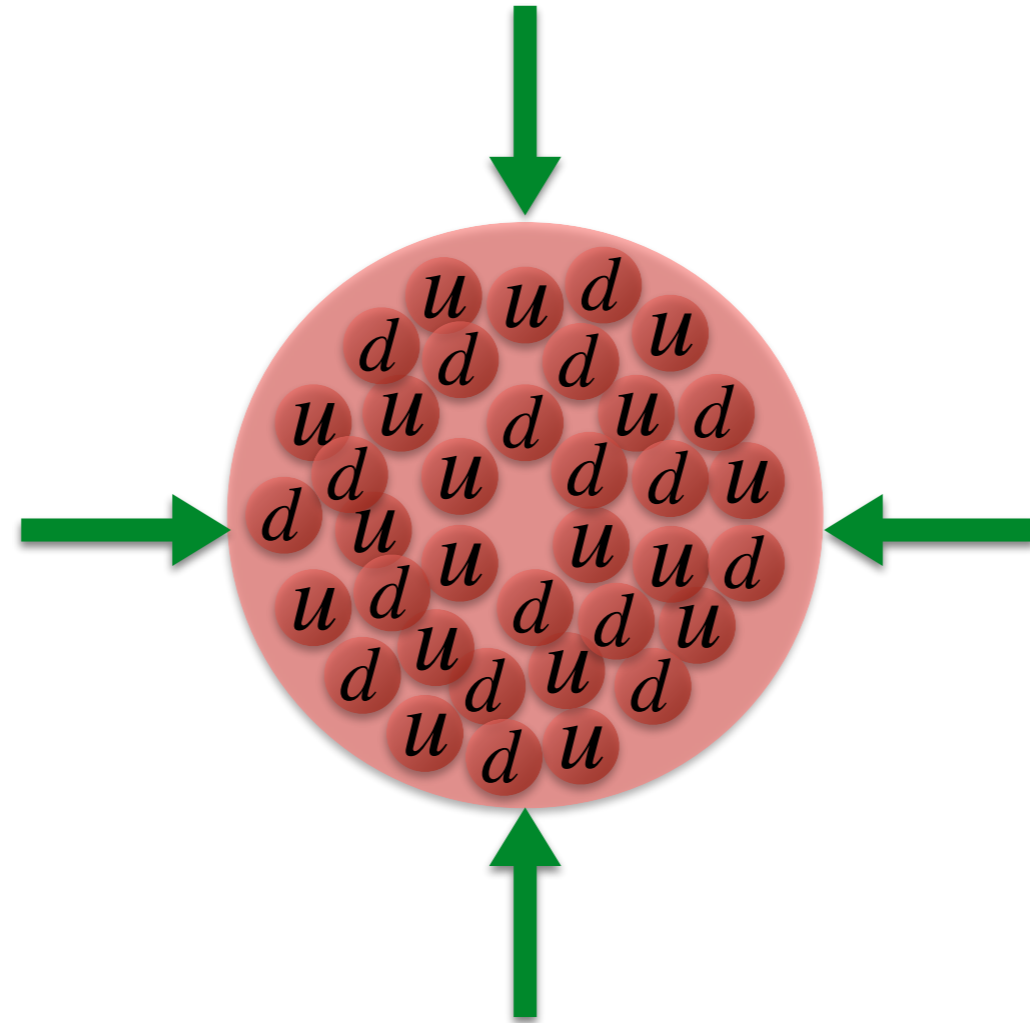
vacuum pressure
($B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$)

$$\begin{aligned} n &\propto p_F^3 \\ A &\propto R^3 n \\ p_F &\propto A^{1/3} R^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\text{kin}} &\propto R^3 p_F^4 \propto A^{4/3} R^{-1} & E_{\text{vac}} &\propto R^3 B & E_{\text{tot}} &= E_{\text{kin}} + E_{\text{vac}} \\ R_{\text{min}} &\propto B^{-1/4} A^{1/3} & E_{\text{tot,min}}/A &= 3 \times 2^{1/4} \pi^{1/2} (2/n_f)^{1/4} B^{1/4} \\ & & &= 917 \text{ MeV} (B^{1/4}/145 \text{ MeV}) \end{aligned}$$



Degenerate Fermi gas



vacuum pressure
($B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$)

$$n \propto p_F^3$$

$$A \propto R^3 n$$

$$p_F \propto A^{1/3} R^{-1}$$

$$E_{\text{kin}} \propto R^3 p_F^4 \propto A^{4/3} R^{-1} \quad E_{\text{vac}} \propto R^3 B \quad E_{\text{tot}} = E_{\text{kin}} + E_{\text{vac}}$$

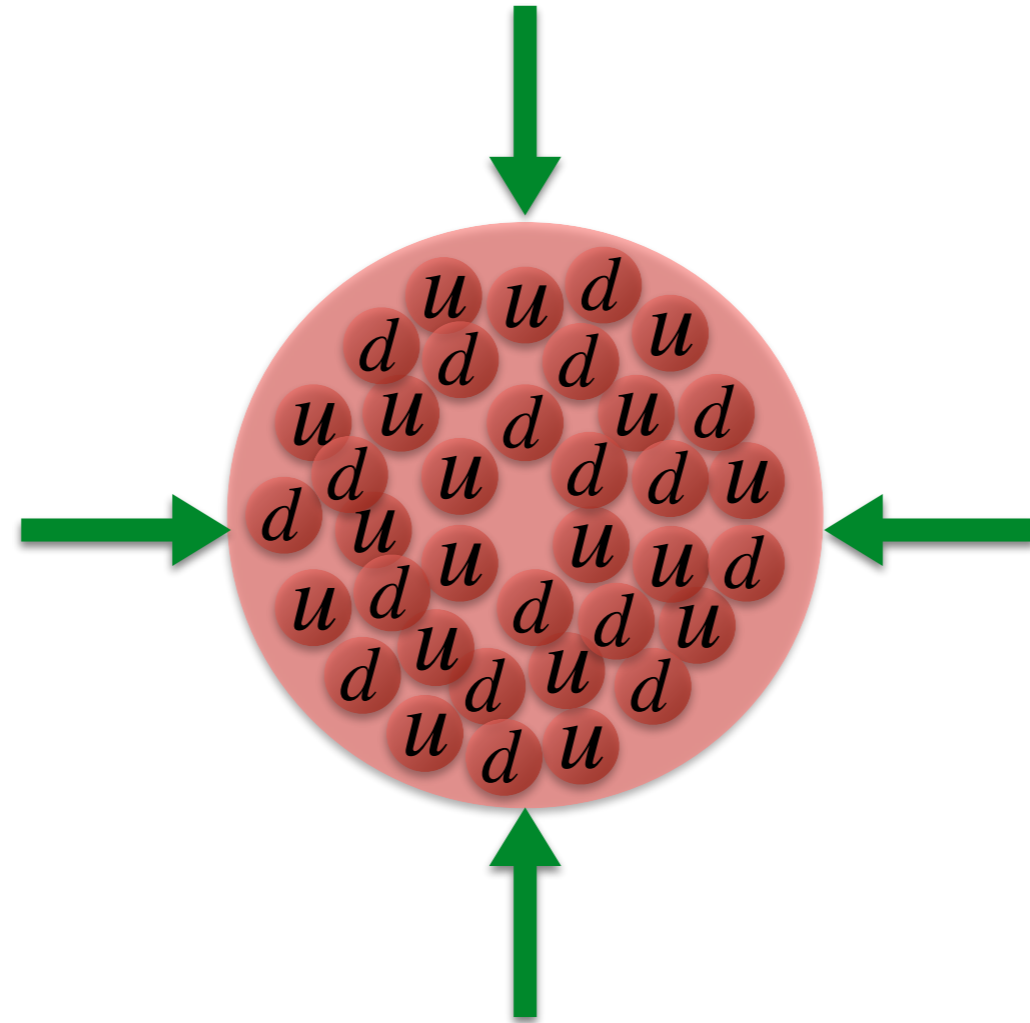
$$R_{\text{min}} \propto B^{-1/4} A^{1/3} \quad E_{\text{tot,min}}/A = 3 \times 2^{1/4} \pi^{1/2} (2/n_f)^{1/4} B^{1/4}$$

$$= 917 \text{ MeV} (B^{1/4}/145 \text{ MeV})$$

“Ground state of QCD”



Degenerate Fermi gas



vacuum pressure
($B \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^4$)

$$n \propto p_F^3$$

$$A \propto R^3 n$$

$$p_F \propto A^{1/3} R^{-1}$$

$$E_{\text{kin}} \propto R^3 p_F^4 \propto A^{4/3} R^{-1} \quad E_{\text{vac}} \propto R^3 B \quad E_{\text{tot}} = E_{\text{kin}} + E_{\text{vac}}$$

$$R_{\text{min}} \propto B^{-1/4} A^{1/3} \quad E_{\text{tot,min}}/A = 3 \times 2^{1/4} \pi^{1/2} (2/n_f)^{1/4} B^{1/4}$$

$$= 917 \text{ MeV} (B^{1/4}/145 \text{ MeV})$$

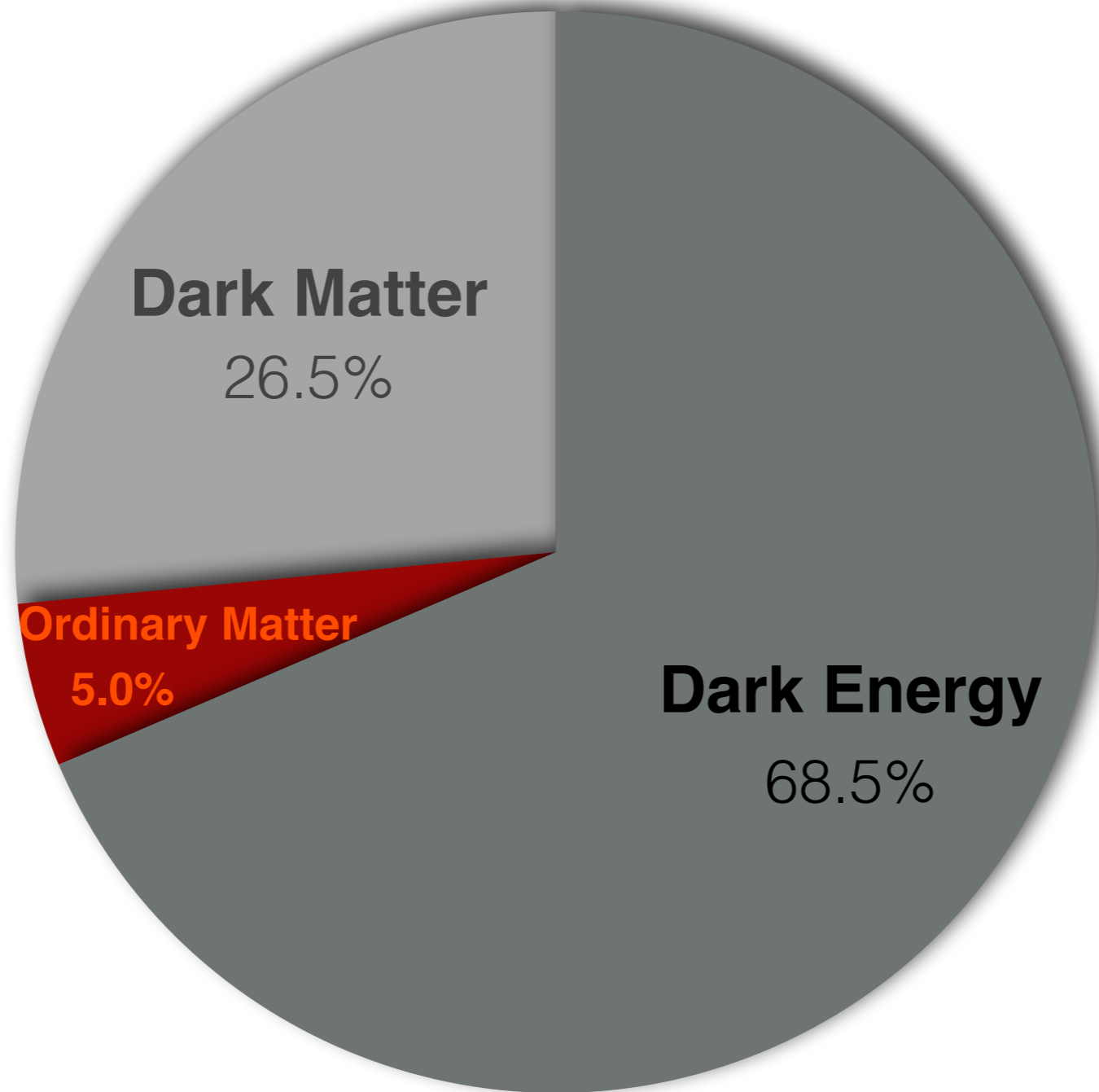
“Ground state of QCD”



Why do we care?



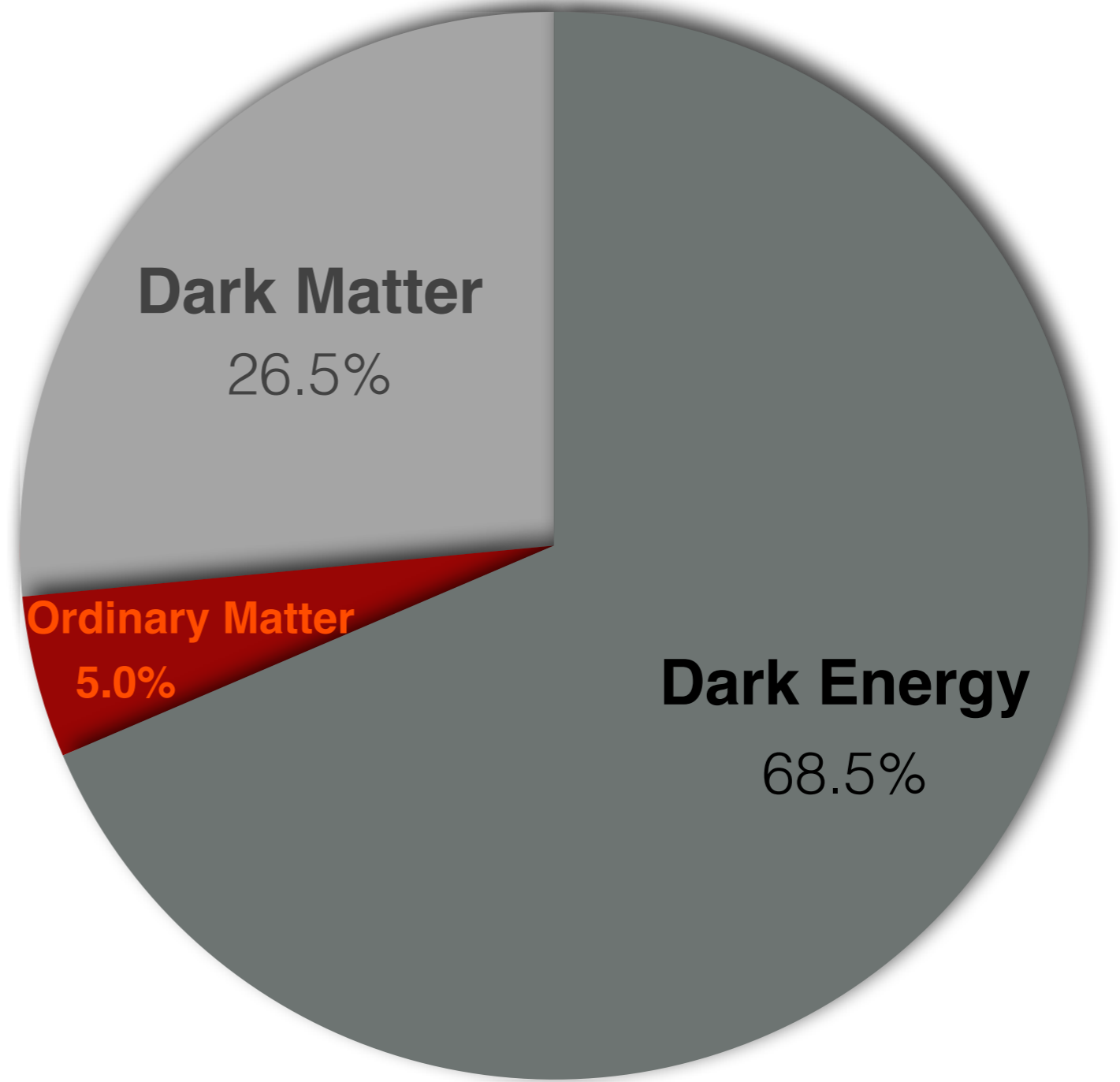
Dark world



from PLANCK, 1807.06209

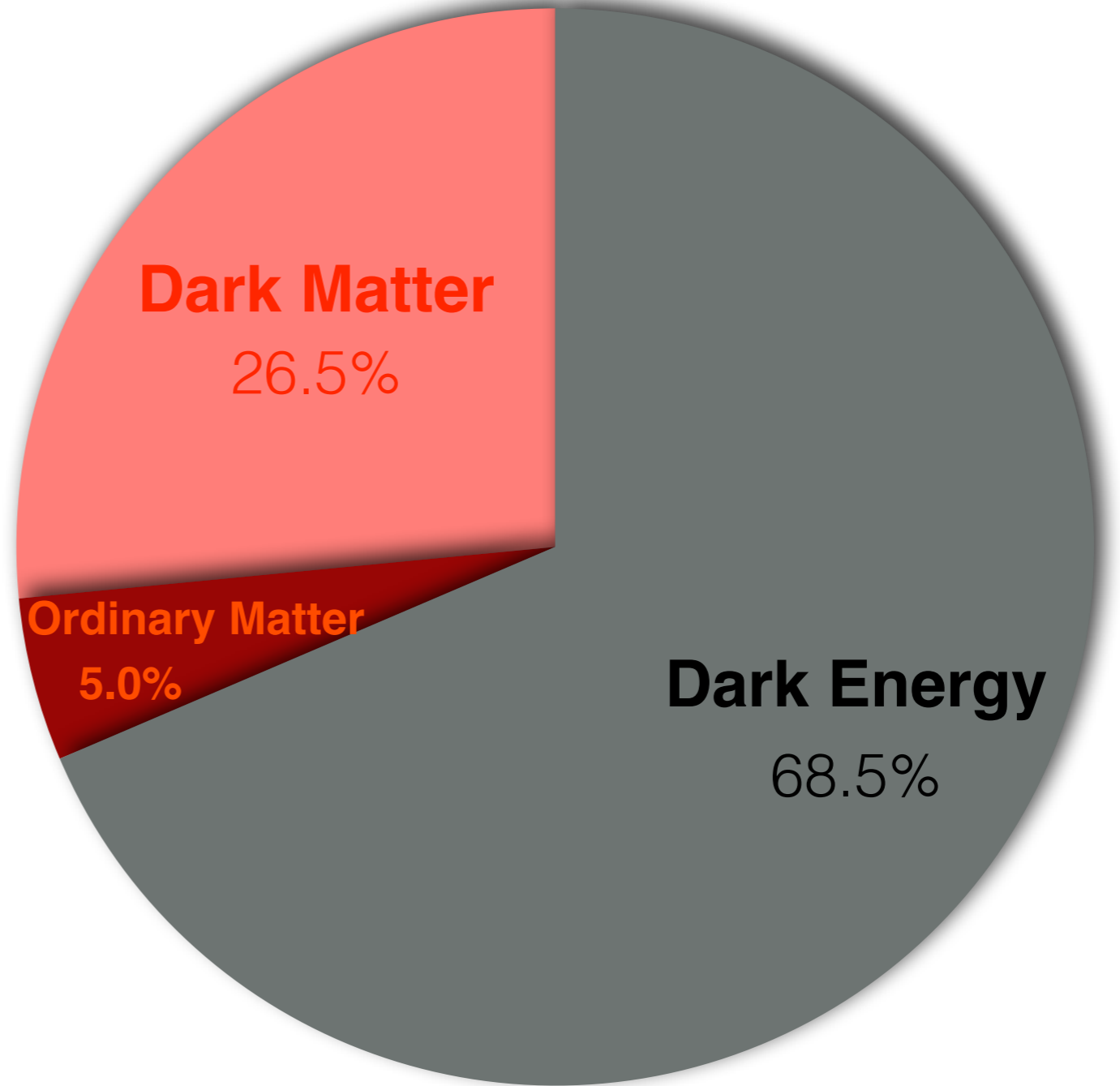


Quark nuggets for dark matter



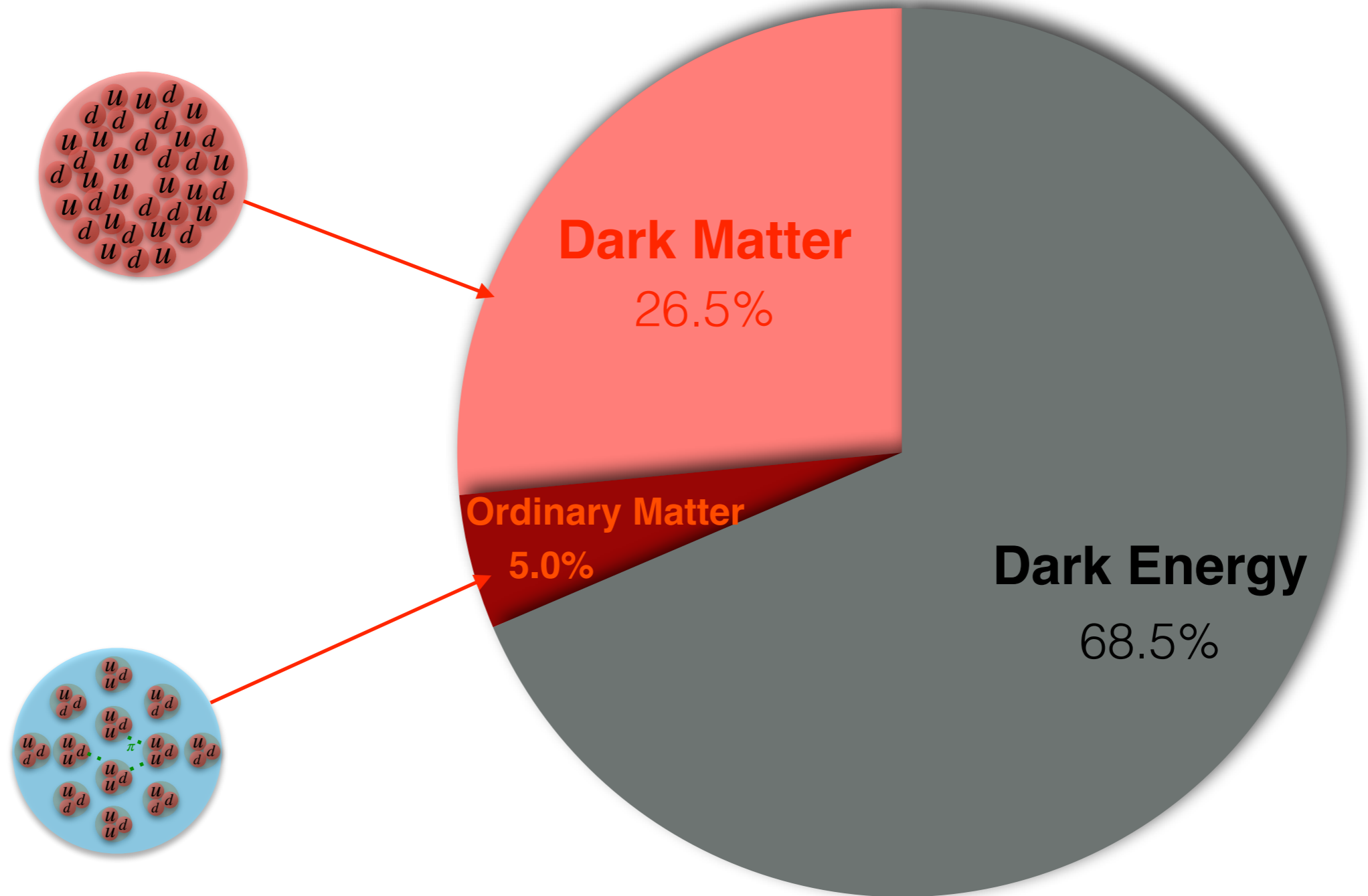


Quark nuggets for dark matter



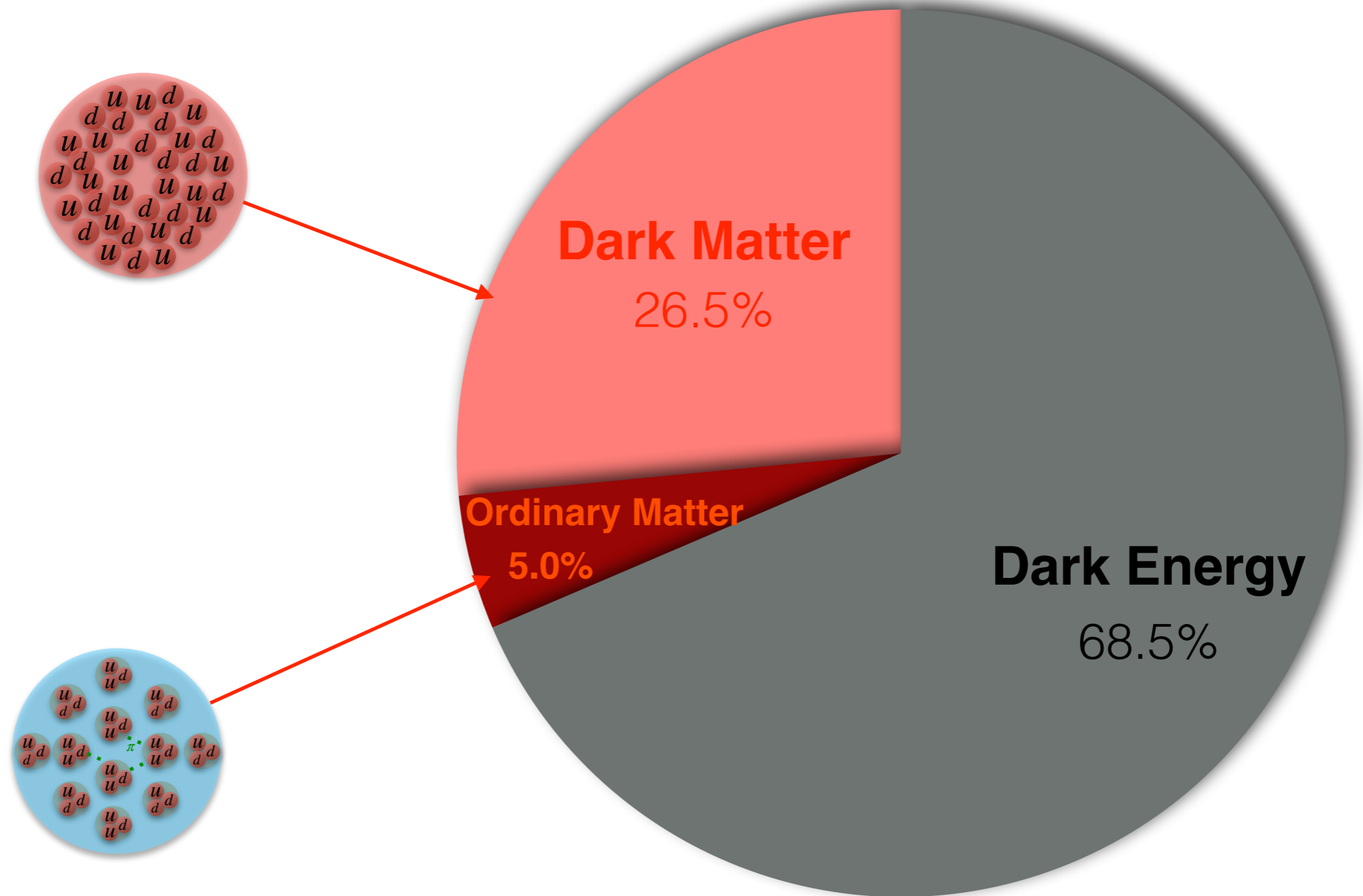


Quark nuggets for dark matter





Quark nuggets for dark matter



❖ Explain dark matter using states in the Standard Model



Properties



Degenerate Fermi gas model

- ❖ **A phenomenological linear sigma model plus constituent quark model**

$$\mathcal{L} \supset \text{Tr}(\partial_\mu \Sigma^\dagger \partial^\mu \Sigma) - V(\Sigma, \Sigma^\dagger) - g (\bar{\psi} \Sigma \psi + \text{h.c.})$$

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_n & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} \sigma_s \end{pmatrix}$$

- ❖ **In the normal chiral-symmetry-breaking vacuum**

$$v_n \equiv \langle \sigma_n \rangle = 92 \text{ MeV} \quad v_s \equiv \langle \sigma_s \rangle = 91 \text{ MeV}$$

$$m_p \approx 3 g v_n \approx 940 \text{ MeV}$$



Degenerate Fermi gas model

- Finite-density of quarks modifies the EOMS of scalars

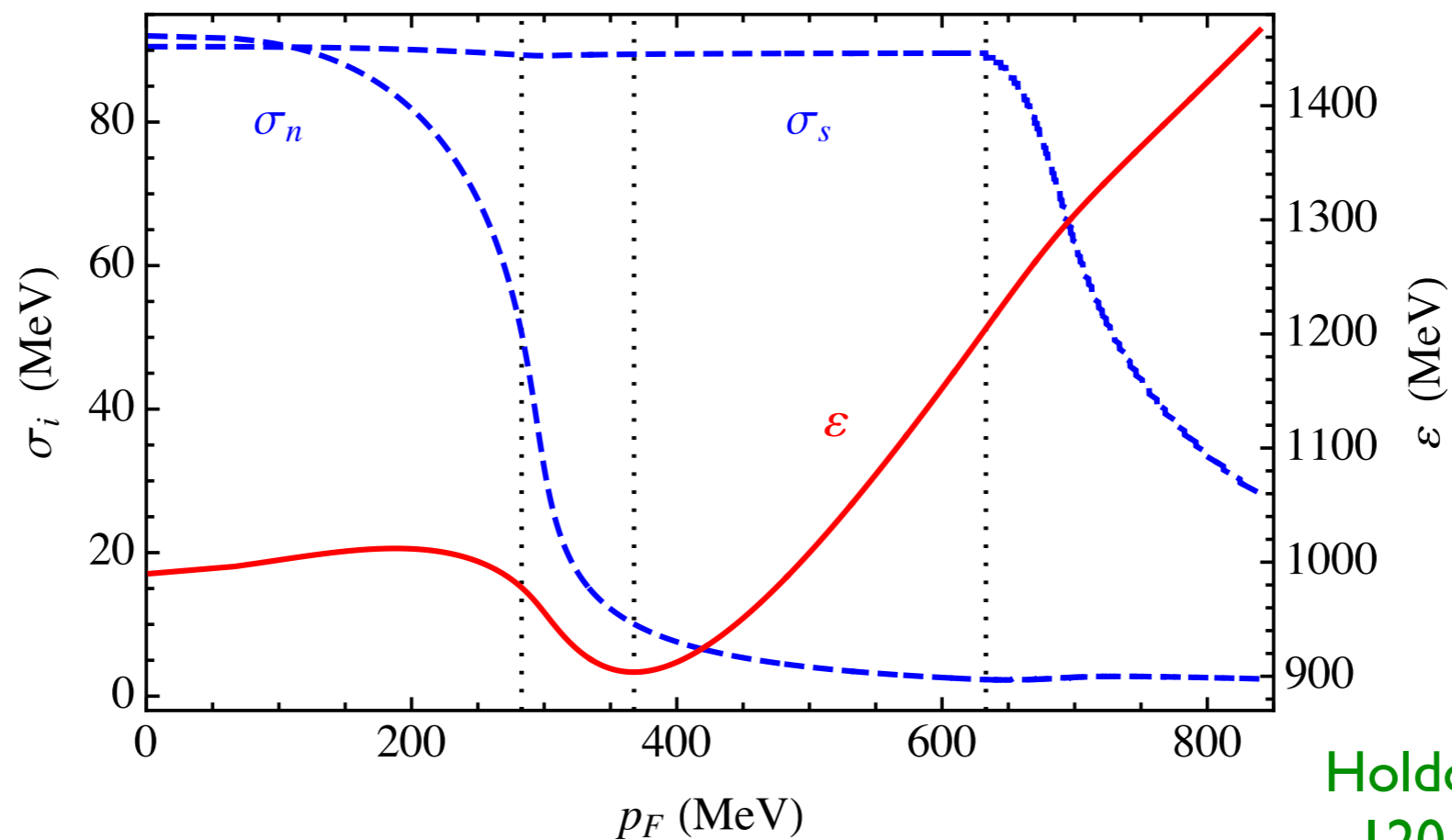
T. D. Lee et. al

$$\nabla^2 \sigma_n = \frac{\partial V}{\partial \sigma_n} + g \sum_{i=u,d} \langle \bar{\psi}_i \psi_i \rangle$$

$$\nabla^2 \sigma_s = \frac{\partial V}{\partial \sigma_s} + \sqrt{2} g \langle \bar{\psi}_s \psi_s \rangle$$

$$\epsilon = \epsilon_\sigma + \epsilon_\psi + \epsilon_Z$$

$$\langle \bar{\psi}_i \psi_i \rangle = \frac{2 N_c}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^{p_{Fi}} d^3 p \frac{m_i(\sigma)}{\sqrt{p^2 + m_i^2(\sigma)}}$$



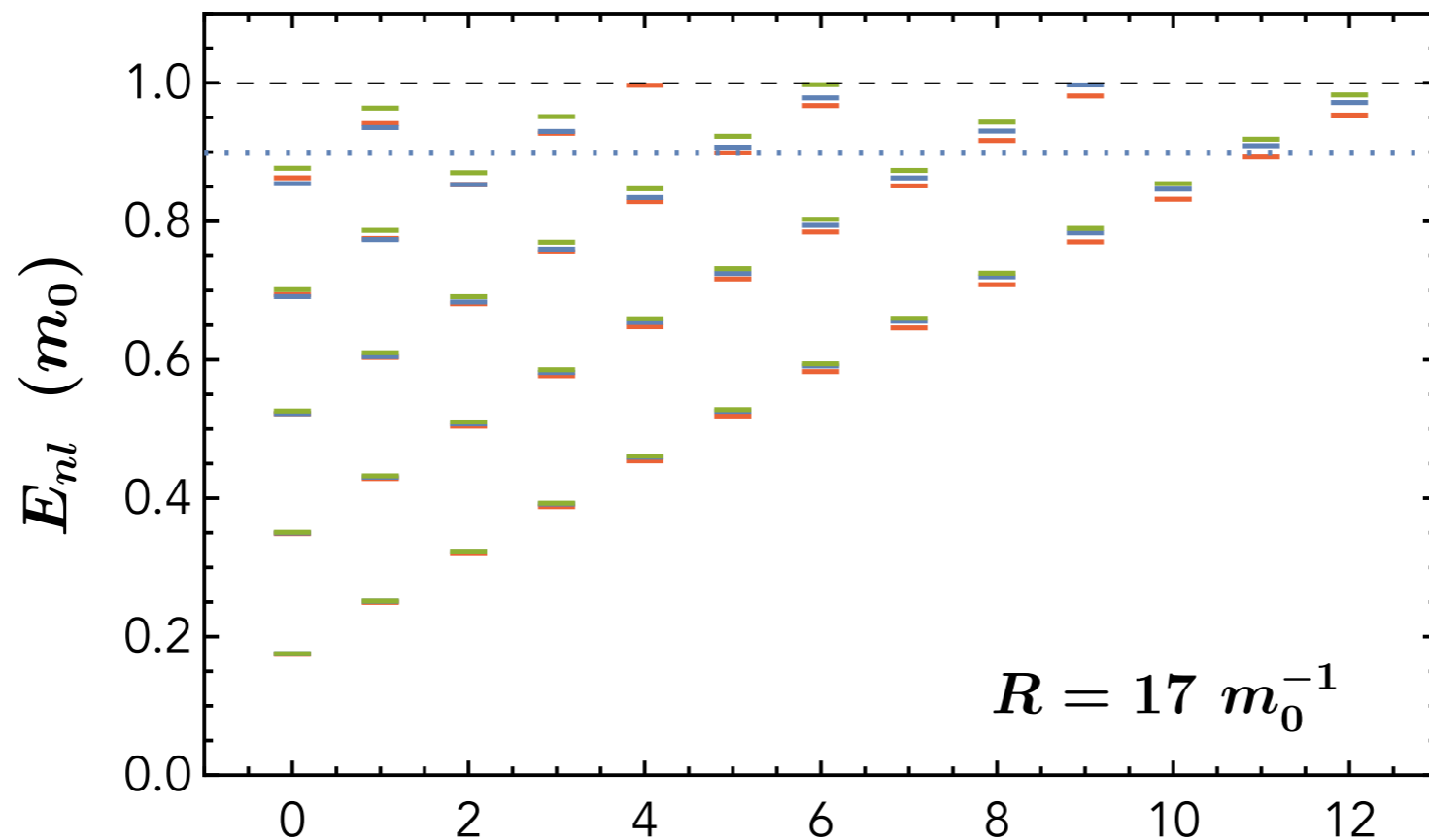
Holdom, Ren, Zhang, PRL
120 (2018) 22, 222001



Friedberg-Lee shell model

- ❖ Obtain the actual energy levels of quarks
- ❖ Assuming a step-function profile for the sigma field

$$(i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m_q(r))\psi(t, \mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{0} \quad \frac{E_{nl} j_{l+1}(E_{nl} R)}{j_l(E_{nl} R)} = \sqrt{m_0^2 - E_{nl}^2} \frac{K_{l+3/2}(\sqrt{m_0^2 - E_{nl}^2} R)}{K_{l+1/2}(\sqrt{m_0^2 - E_{nl}^2} R)},$$



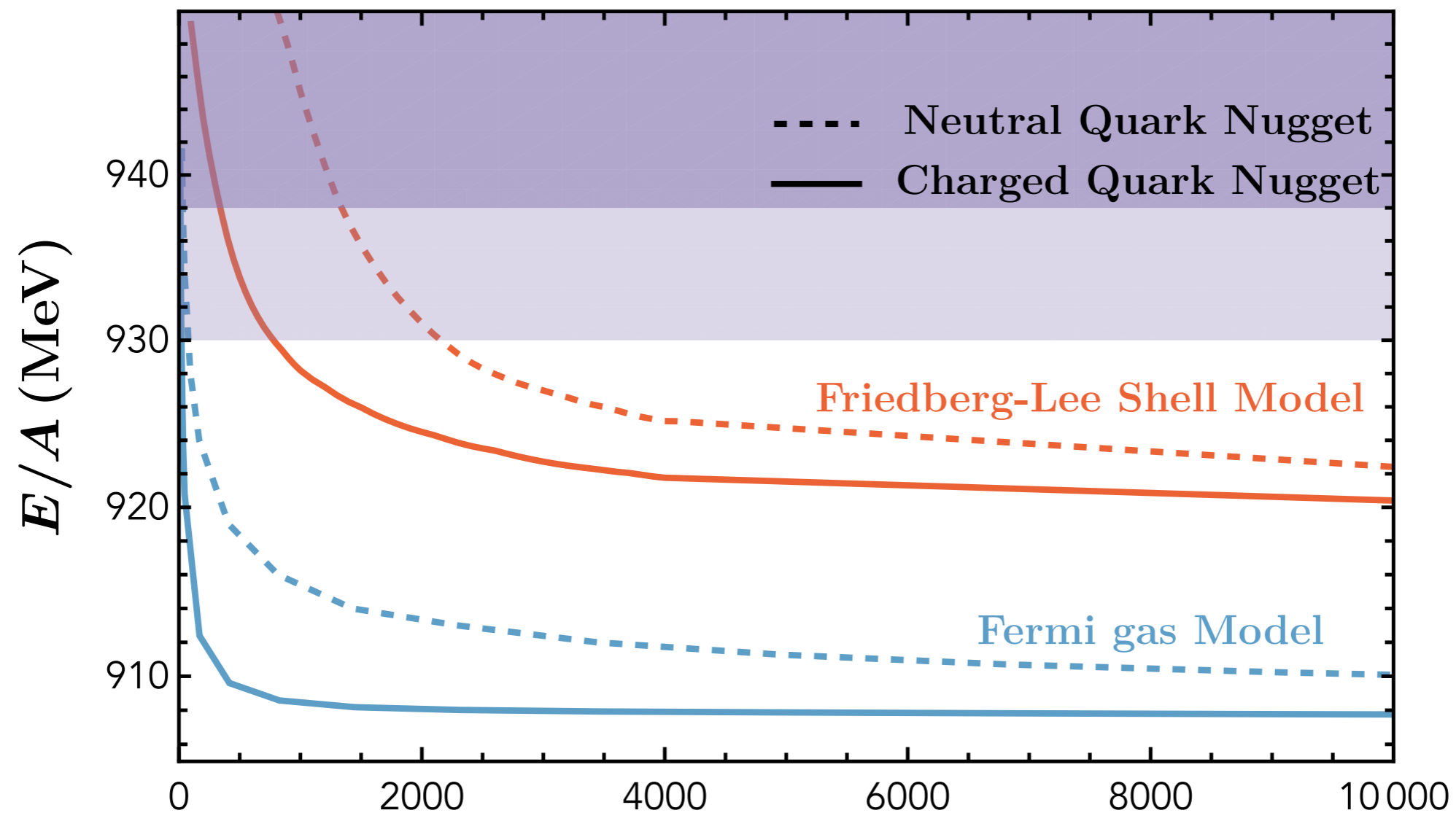
$$m_0 = g v_n = 326.6 \text{ MeV}$$



Energy of quark nuggets

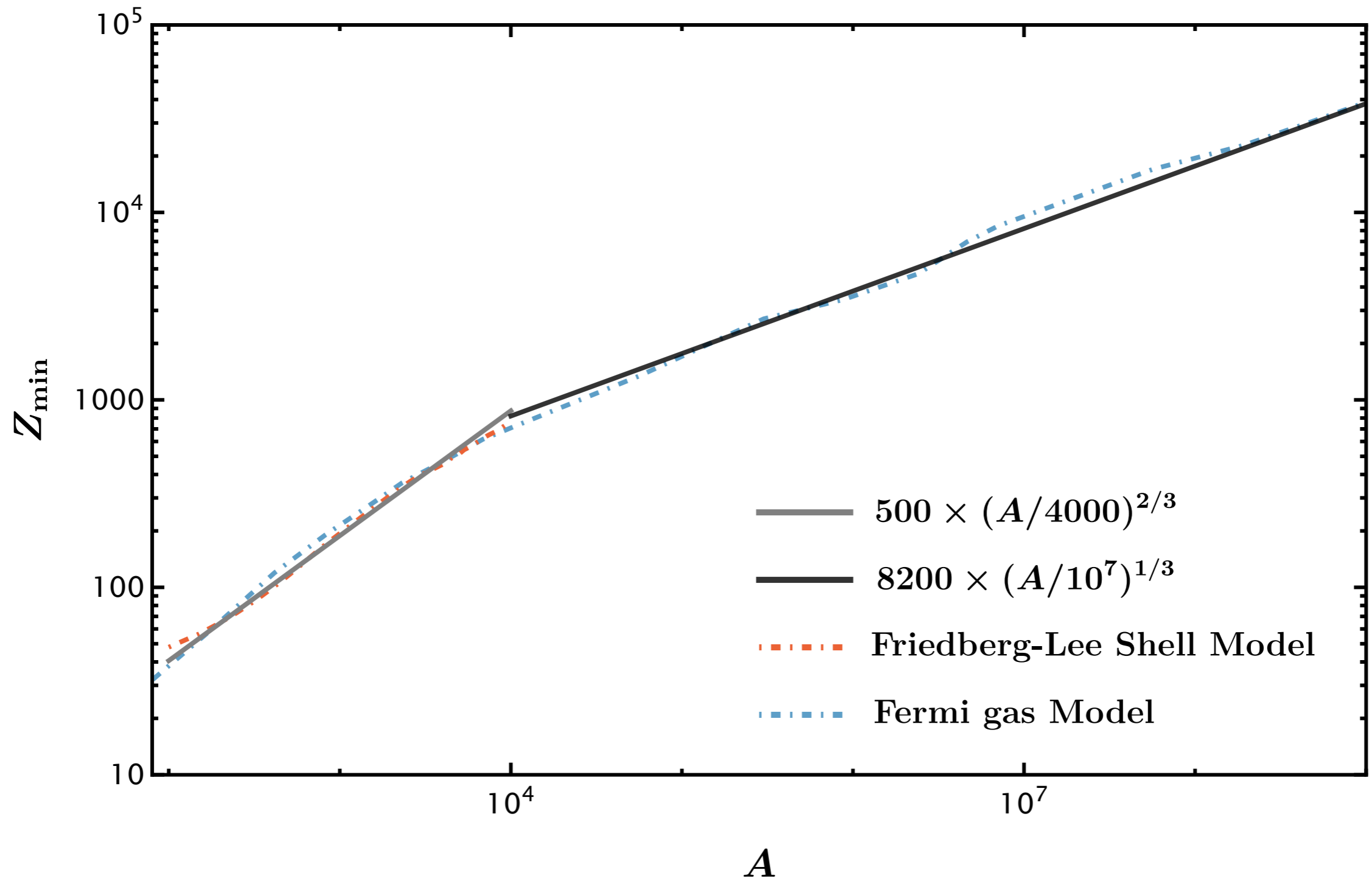
- ❖ Add electrons to neutralize the total electric charge

$$\epsilon_e = \int_0^{p_{F,e}} \frac{2}{(2\pi)^3} d^3p \sqrt{p^2 + m_e^2}$$





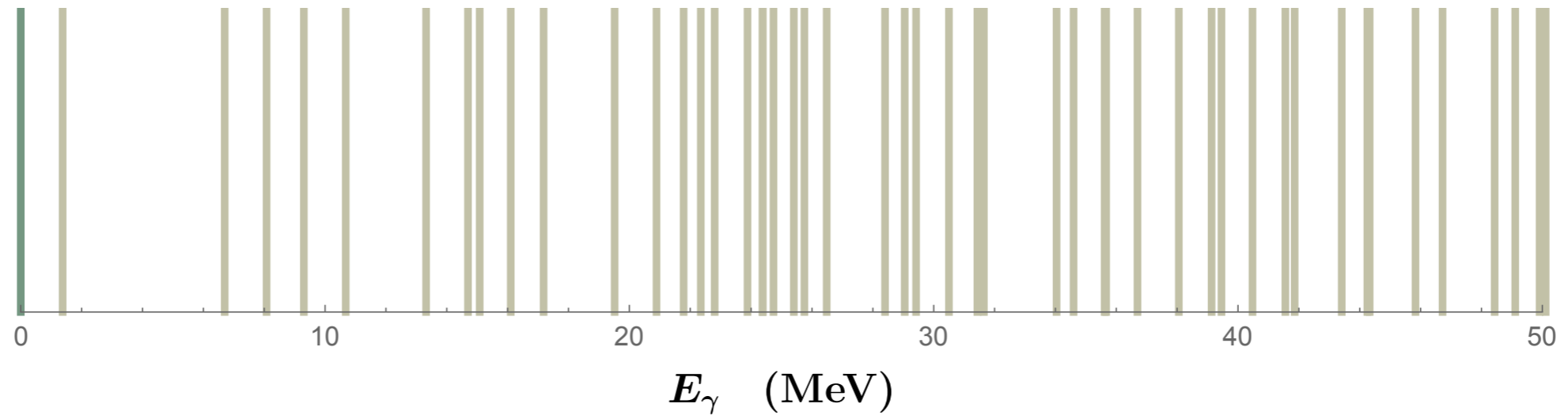
Charge over mass



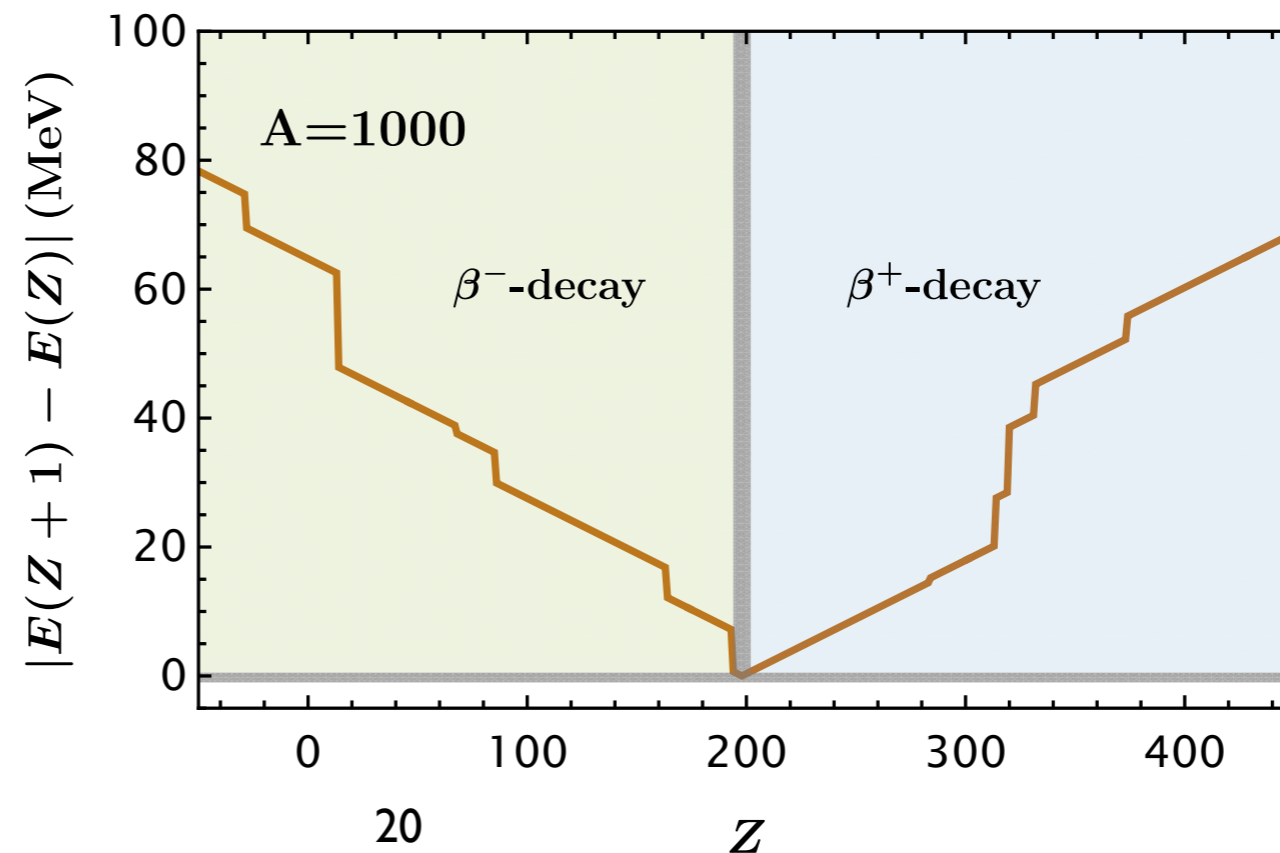


Radioactivity of quark nugget

❖ Gamma-decay



❖ Beta-decay





More precise solutions

❖ Solving the coupled scalar and fermion EOM's

$$(i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m_q(r))\psi(t, \mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\psi_{nljm}(\mathbf{r}) = \begin{pmatrix} i f_{nlj}(r) \mathcal{Y}_{ljm}(\hat{\mathbf{r}}) \\ g_{nlj}(r) \vec{\sigma} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} \mathcal{Y}_{ljm}(\hat{\mathbf{r}}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} i \frac{a_{nlj}(r)}{r} \mathcal{Y}_{ljm}(\hat{\mathbf{r}}) \\ \frac{b_{nlj}(r)}{r} \vec{\sigma} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}} \mathcal{Y}_{ljm}(\hat{\mathbf{r}}) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{da_{nlj}}{dr} = \frac{\kappa_{lj}}{r} a_{nlj}(r) + [m_q(r) + E] b_{nlj}(r) \quad \kappa_{lj} = \frac{1}{2} \pm (l + \frac{1}{2})$$

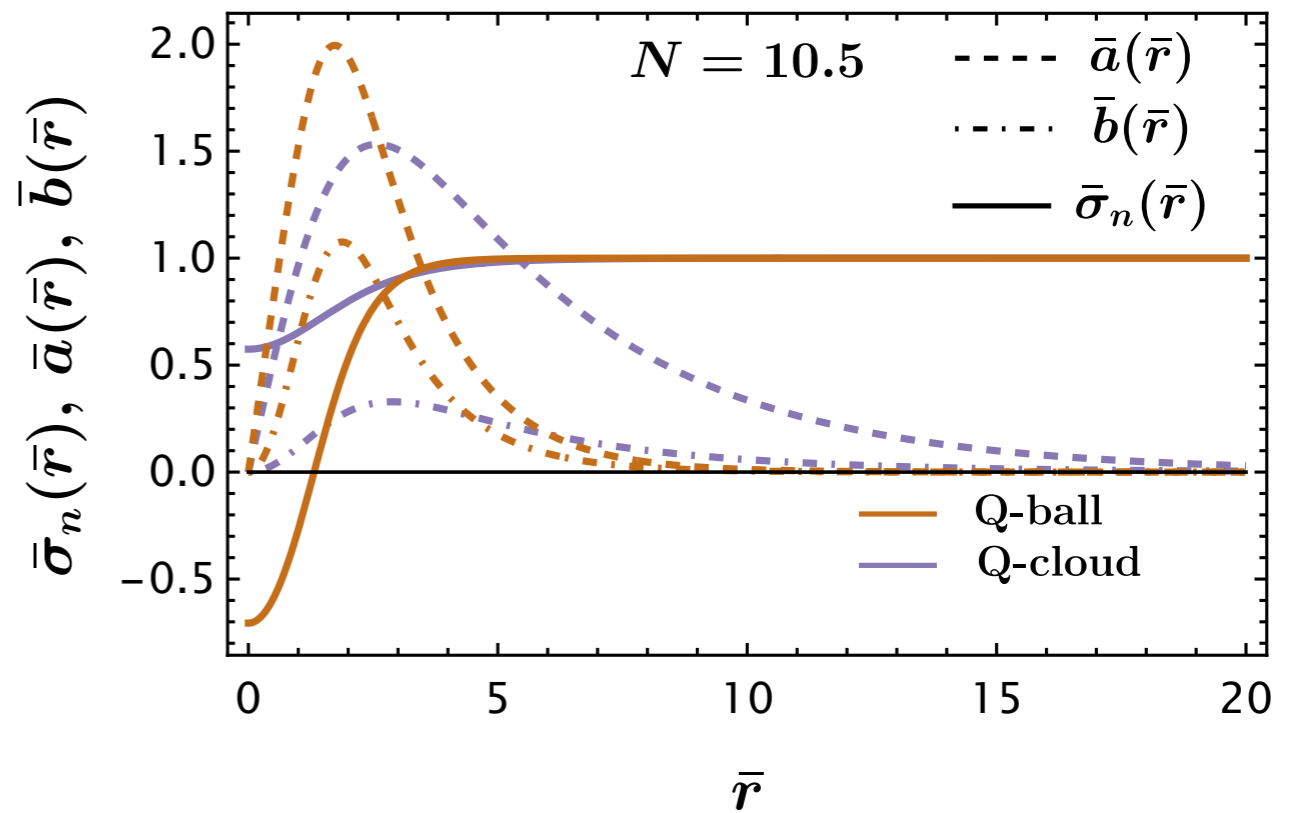
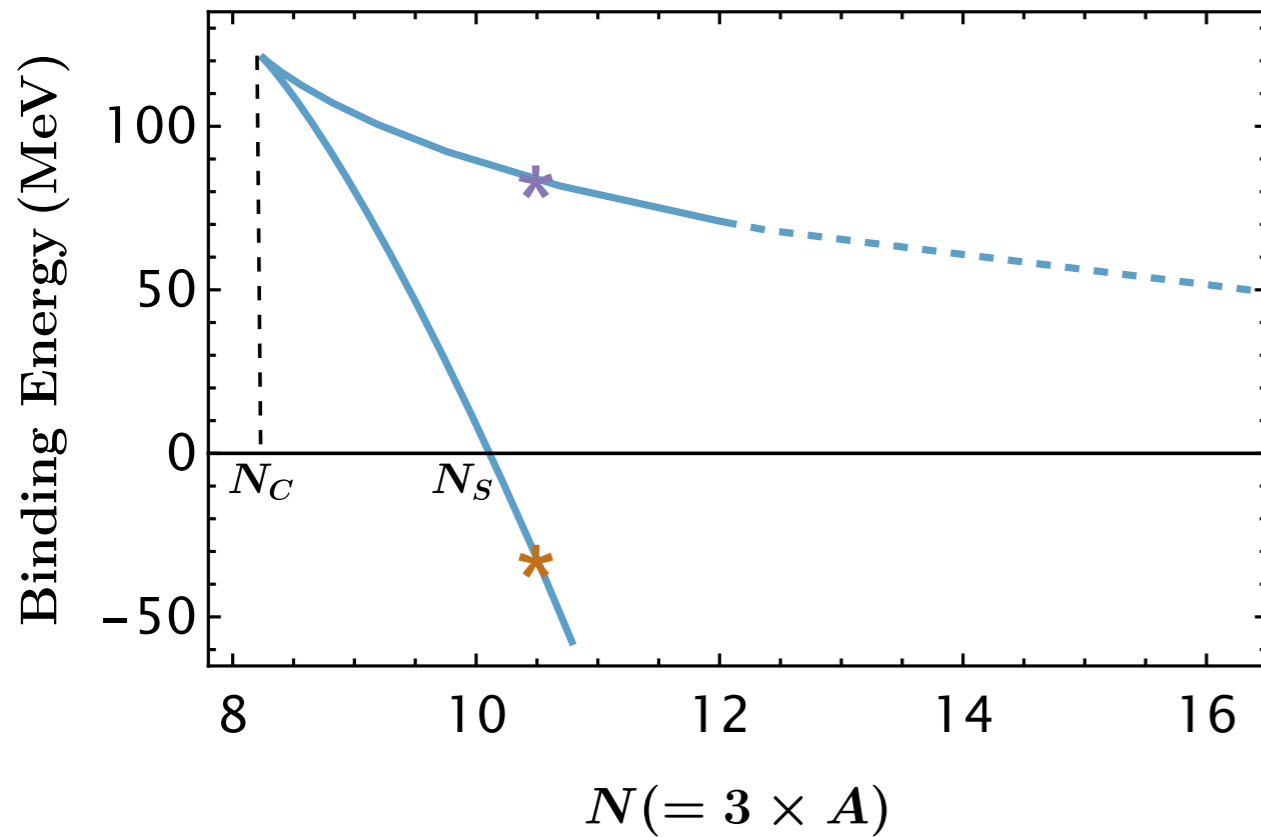
$$\frac{db_{nlj}}{dr} = [m_q(r) - E] a_{nlj}(r) - \frac{\kappa_{lj}}{r} b_{nlj}(r)$$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dr^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{d\sigma}{dr} = \frac{dV}{d\sigma} + g N_c \frac{1}{r^2} (a_{nlj}^2 - b_{nlj}^2)$$

$$a_{nlj}(\infty) = 0, \quad b_{nlj}(0) = 0, \quad \sigma(\infty) = v_n \quad d\sigma/dr(r=0) = 0$$



Q_c vs Q_s



$$\tau \approx (g v_n)^{-1} e^{\#(N-N_c)} \quad \text{for } N_c < N < N_s$$

- ❖ **Some light quark nuggets could be metastable and eventually evaporate to ordinary nucleons**

Levkov, Nugget, Popescu, 1711.05279

Son, Stephanov, Yee, 2112.03318

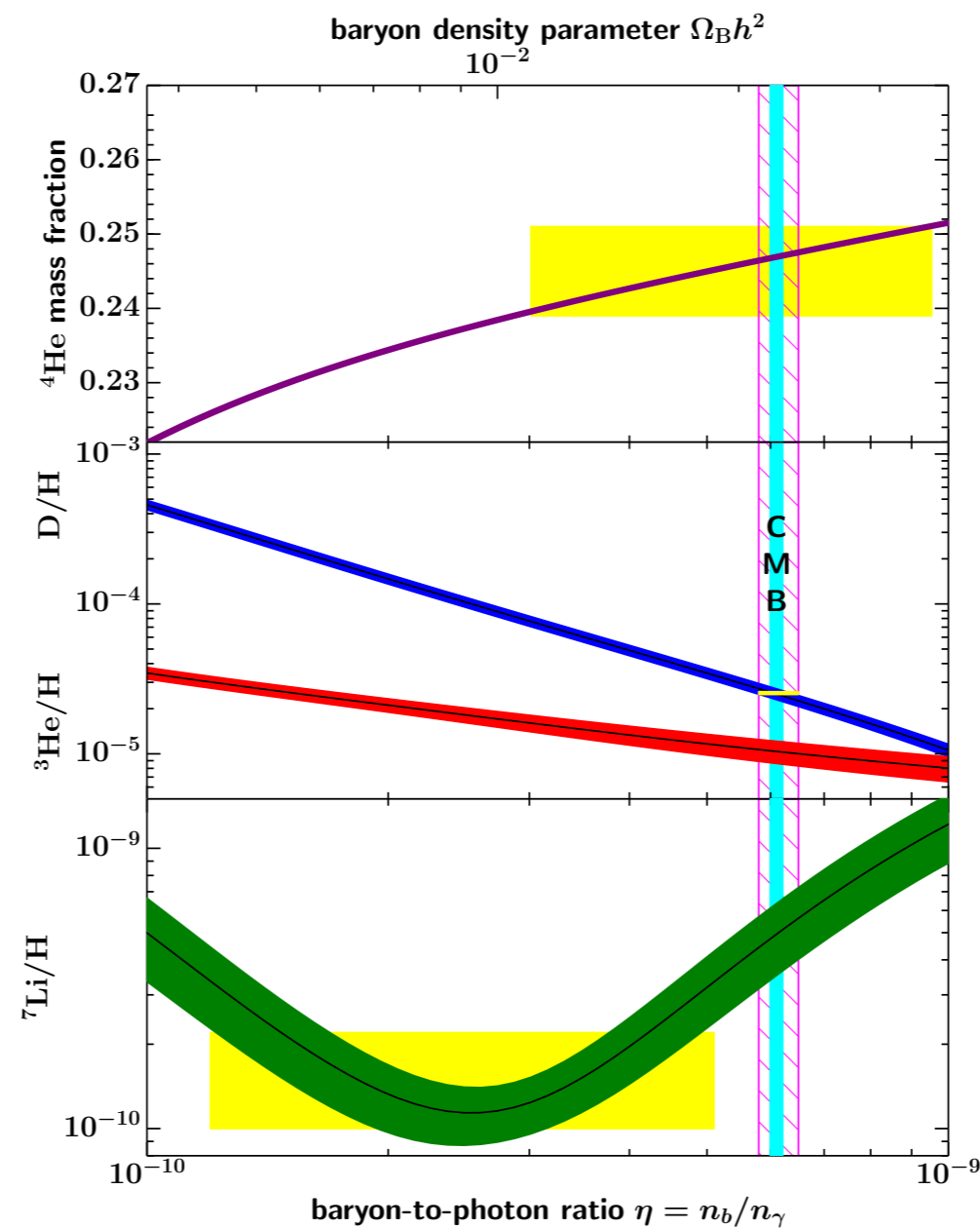


How to form it?



Origin for ordinary nuclei

- ❖ Baryon anti-baryon asymmetry (unknown)
- ❖ Light elements from nucleosynthesis





Origin for ordinary nuclei

❖ Heavy elements from nucleosynthesis of neutron star mergers

GW170817

Nucleosynthesis, neutrino bursts and γ -rays from coalescing neutron stars

David Eichler*, Mario Livio†, Tsvi Piran‡ & David N. Schramm§

* Department of Physics, Ben Gurion University, Beer Sheva, Israel, and Astronomy Program, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742, USA

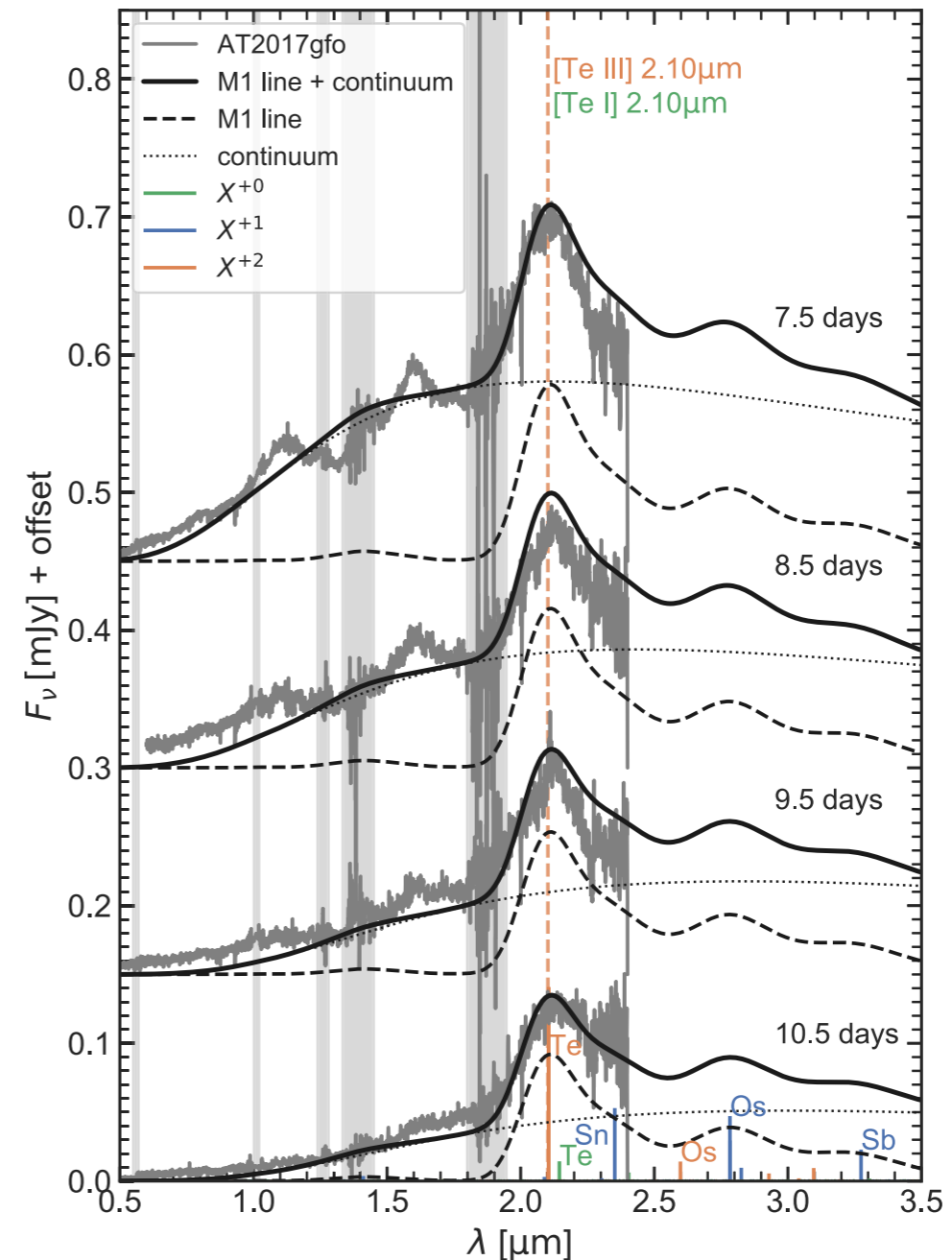
† Department of Physics, The Technion, Haifa, Israel

‡ Racah Institute for Physics, Hebrew University, Jerusalem, Israel, and Princeton University Observatory, Princeton, New Jersey 08544, USA

§ Departments of Physics and Astrophysics, University of Chicago, 5640 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60637, USA, and NASA/Fermilab Astrophysics Center, Batavia, Illinois 60510, USA

NEUTRON-STAR collisions occur inevitably when binary neutron stars spiral into each other as a result of damping of gravitational radiation. Such collisions will produce a characteristic burst of gravitational radiation, which may be the most promising source of a detectable signal for proposed gravity-wave detectors¹. Such signals are sufficiently unique and robust for them to have been proposed as a means of determining the Hubble constant². However, the rate of these neutron-star collisions is highly uncertain³. Here we note that such events should also synthesize neutron-rich heavy elements, thought to be formed by rapid neutron capture (the r-process)⁴. Furthermore, these collisions should produce neutrino bursts⁵ and resultant bursts of γ -rays; the latter should comprise a subclass of observable γ -ray bursts. We argue that observed r-process abundances and γ -ray-burst rates predict rates for these collisions that are both significant and consistent with other estimates.

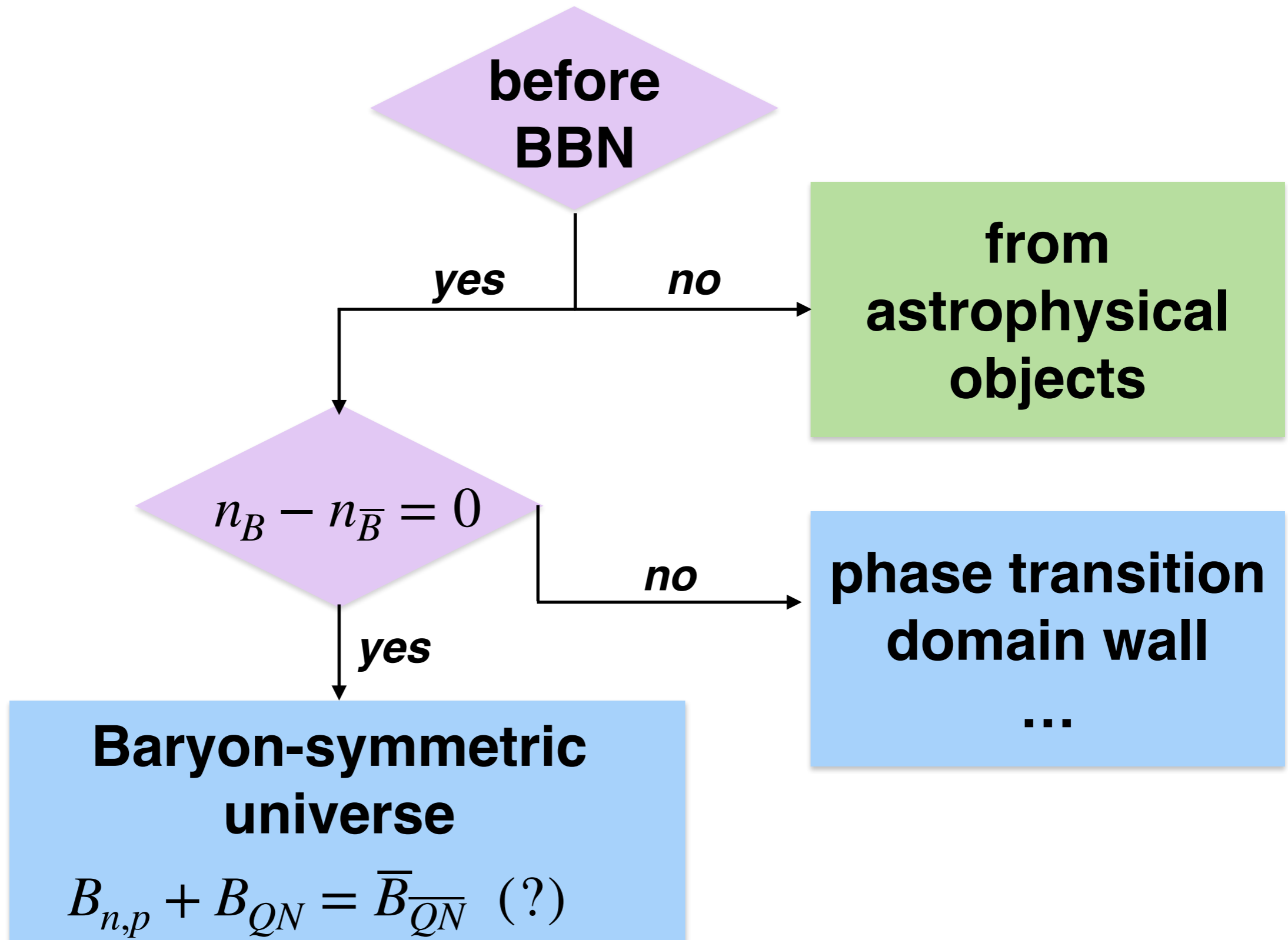
Nature, Vol 340, 126 (1989)



Hotokezaka, MNRAS, 526, L155-L159 (2023)

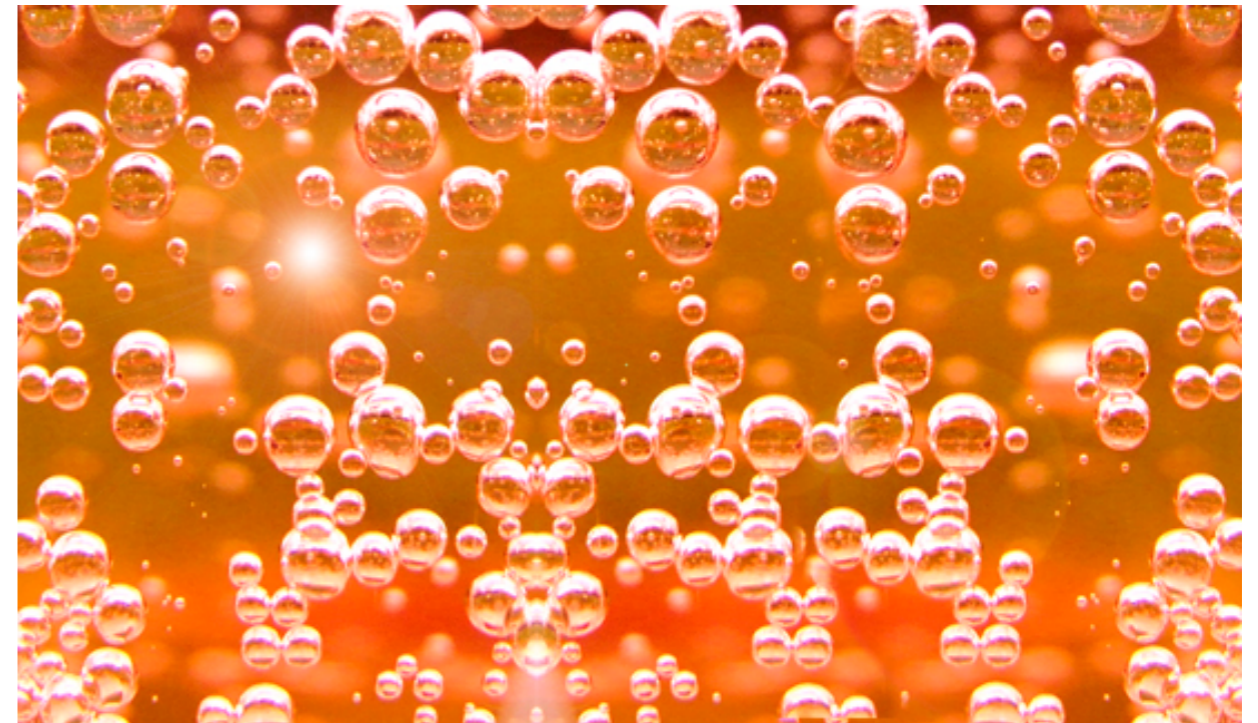


Formation of quark nuggets



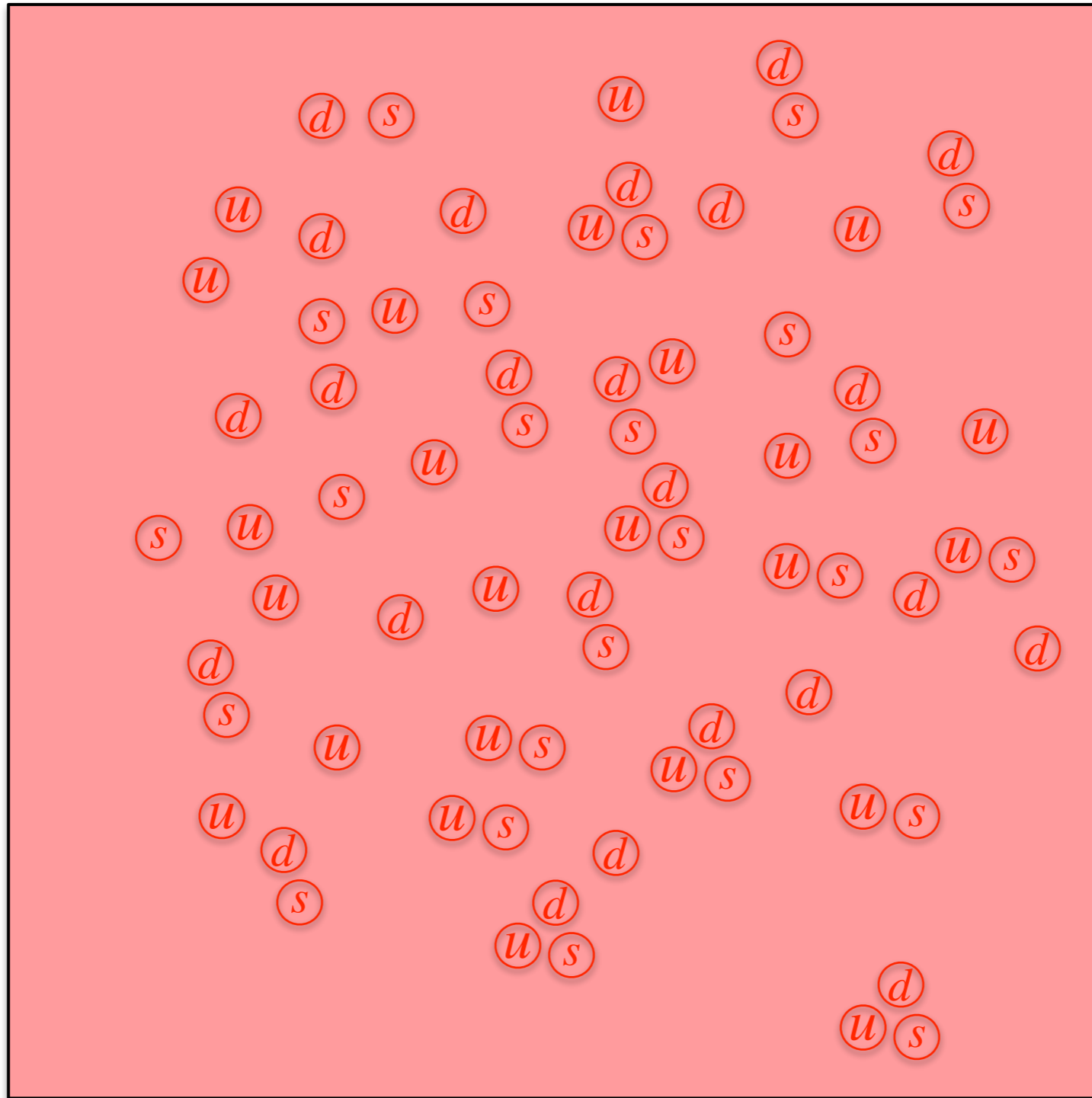


Formation from 1'st order phase transition

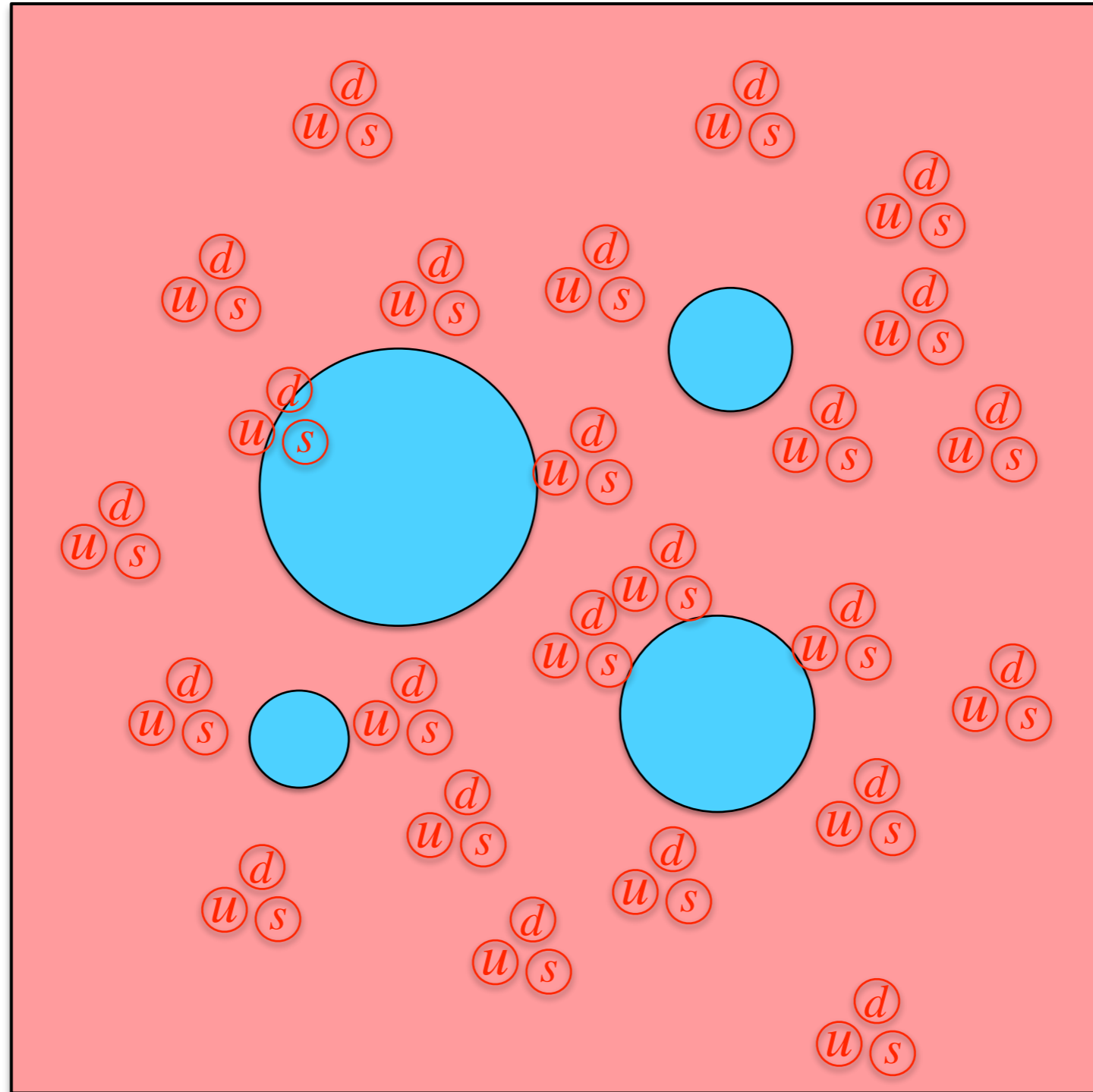


Witten, '1984

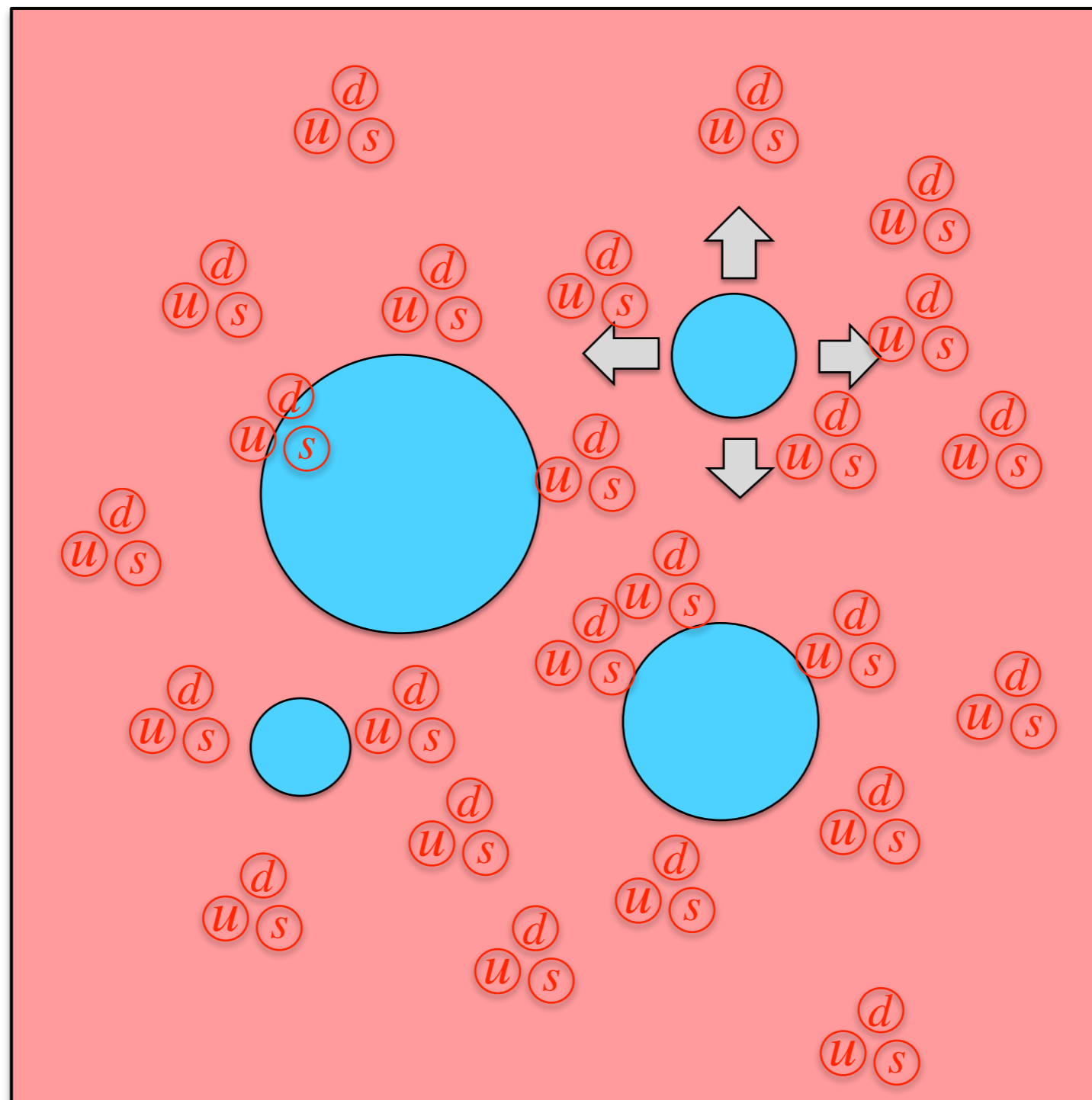
$$T > T_c$$



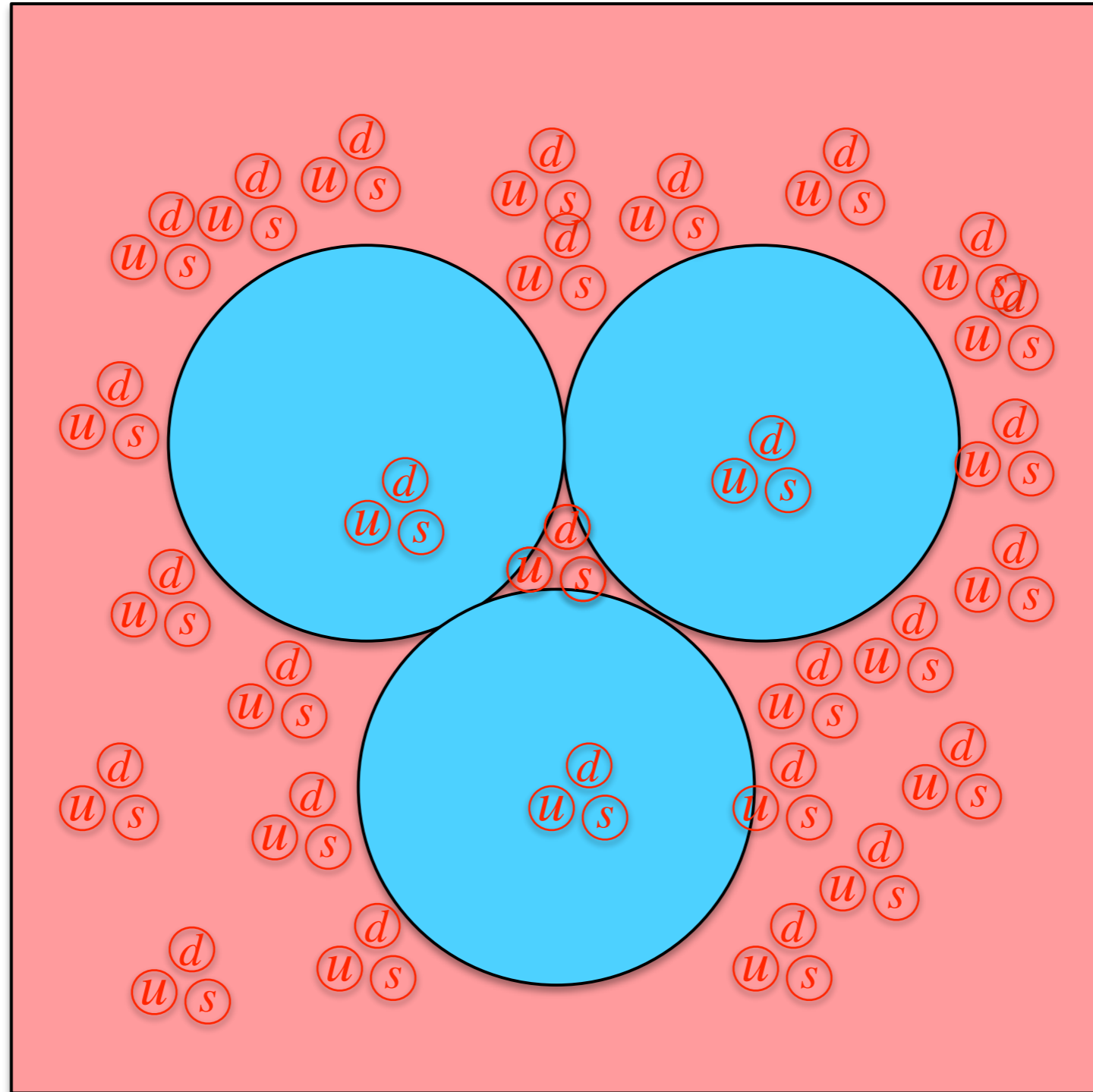
$$T \sim T_c$$



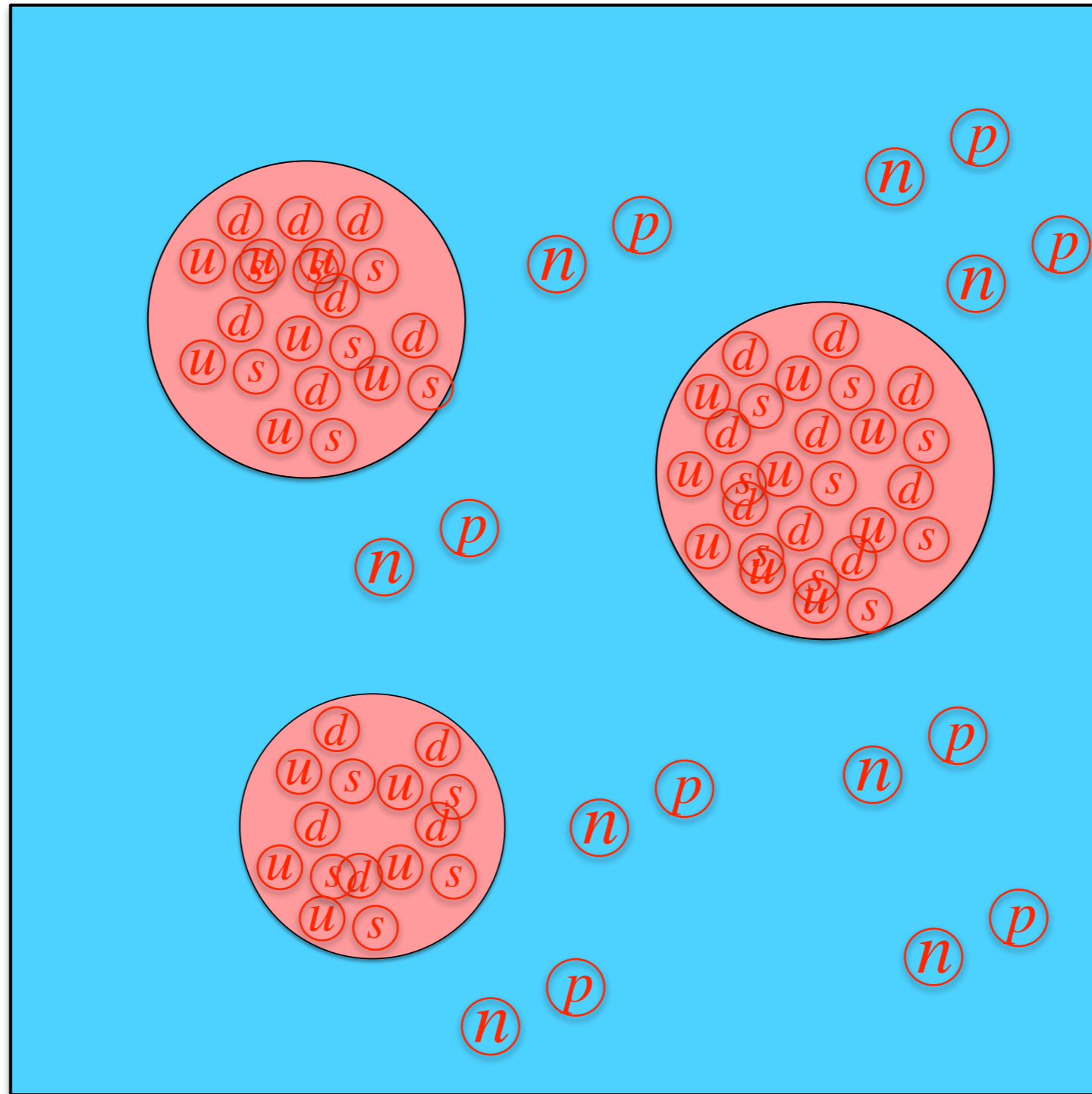
$$T \sim T_c$$



Hadron bubbles grow



Isolated quark nuggets



Properties of quark nuggets

- ❖ **The mass of the quark nugget is**

$$M_{\text{QN}} \sim 10^{14} \text{ g}$$

- ❖ **The radius of the quark nugget is**

$$R_{\text{QN}} \sim 1 \text{ cm}$$

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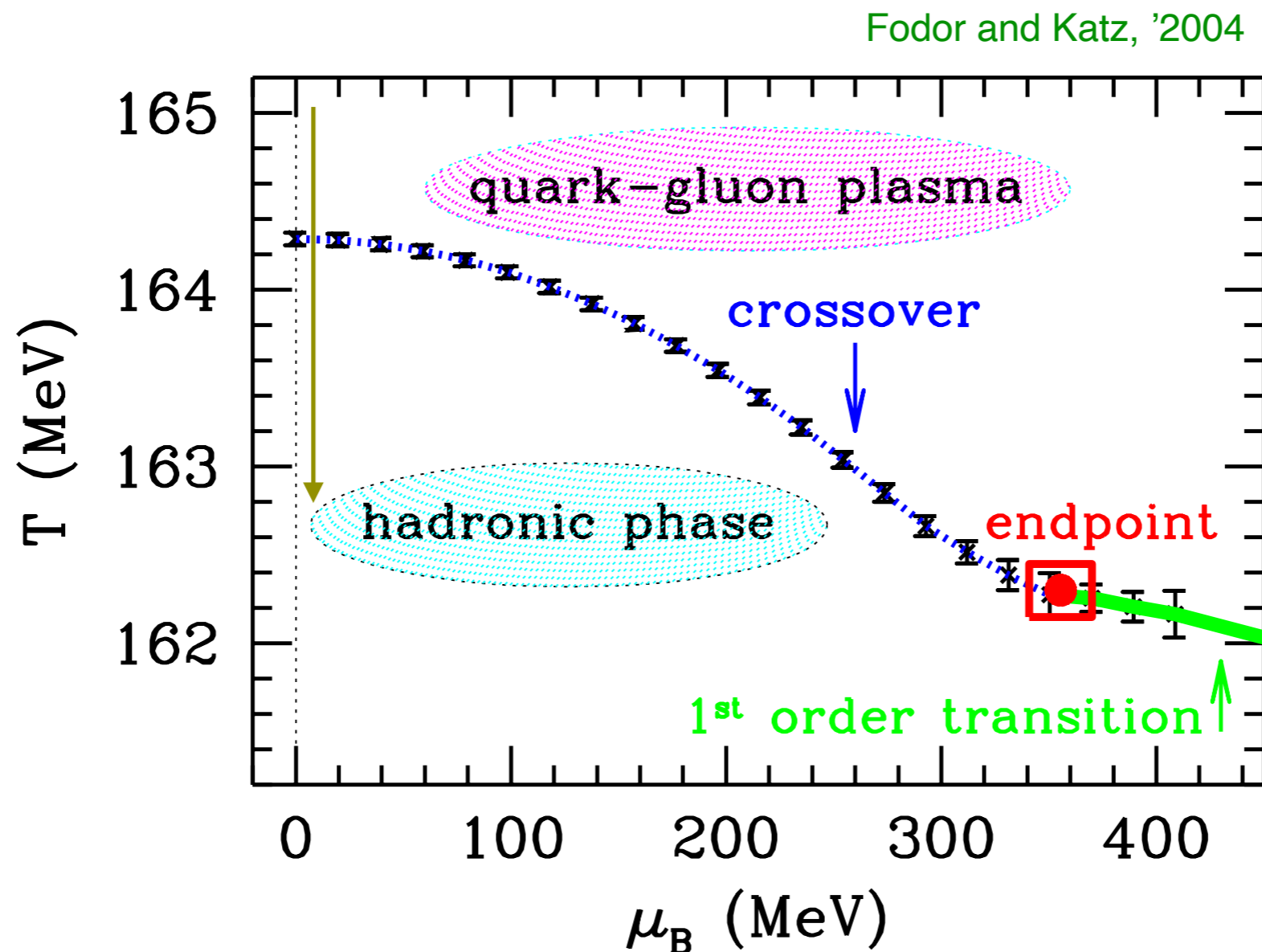
- ❖ The energy density of the QM is similar to a Neutron Star, except with a much smaller radius

“micro Neutron Star”

- ❖ One example of Macroscopic Dark Matter

QCD phase transition

- ❖ Crossover in the minimal Standard Model of Particle Physics with the normal early universe history





How to have QCD 1'st-order PT?

- ❖ **Making the strange quark lighter during the transition time (FOPT for 3 massless quarks)**

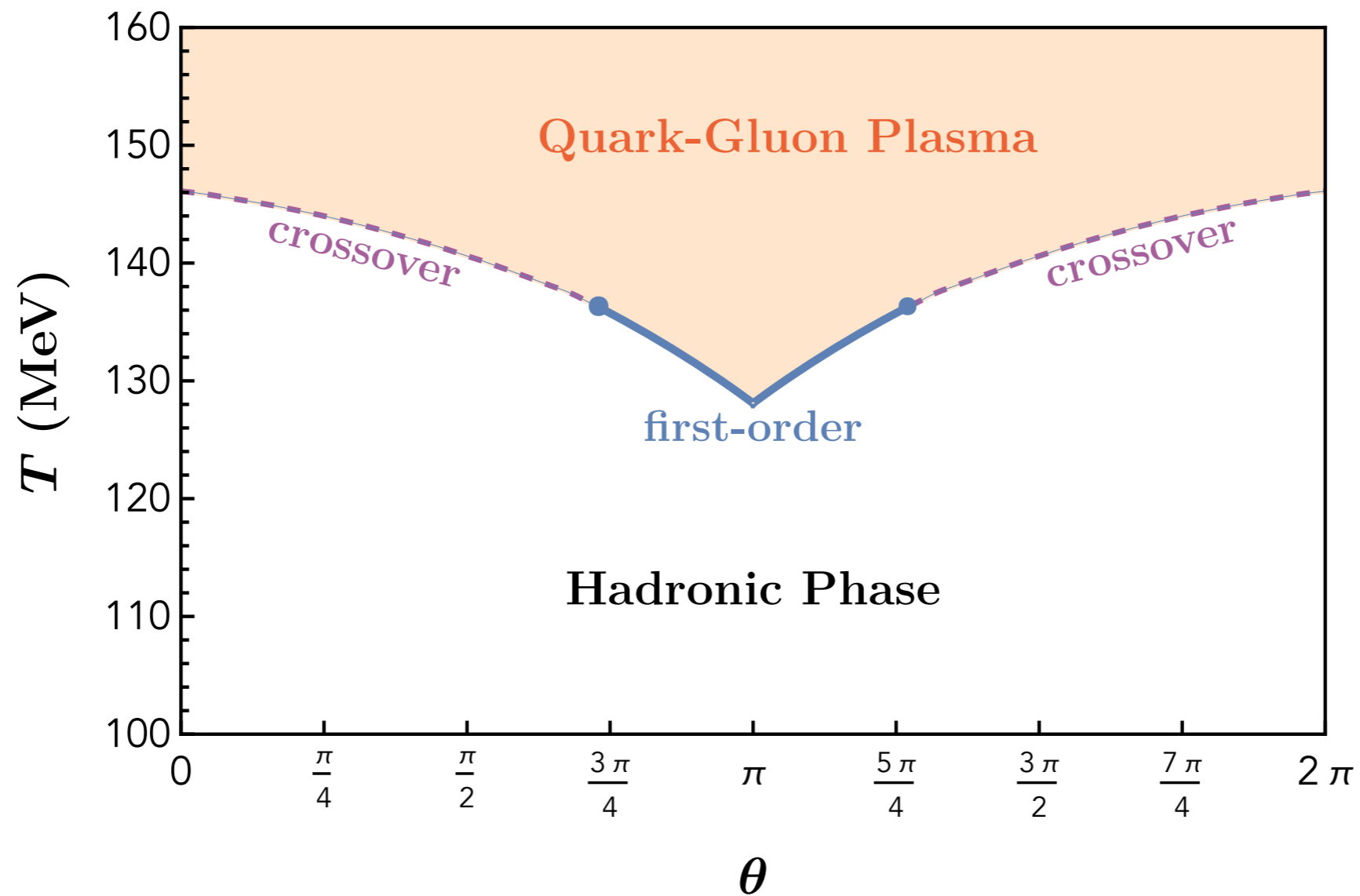
For instance, using Froggatt-Nielsen fields to dynamically control quark masses (suffers fine-tuning and flavor constraints)

- ❖ **Supercool the electroweak phase transition to be below the QCD scale (requires a non-trivial flat potential)**
- ❖ **Existing a large lepton number chemical potential (suffers from BBN and CMB constraints)**



QCD phase transition with $\theta \neq 0$

$$\mathcal{L} \supset -\frac{1}{32\pi^2} G^{\mu\nu} \widetilde{G}_{\mu\nu} \theta$$



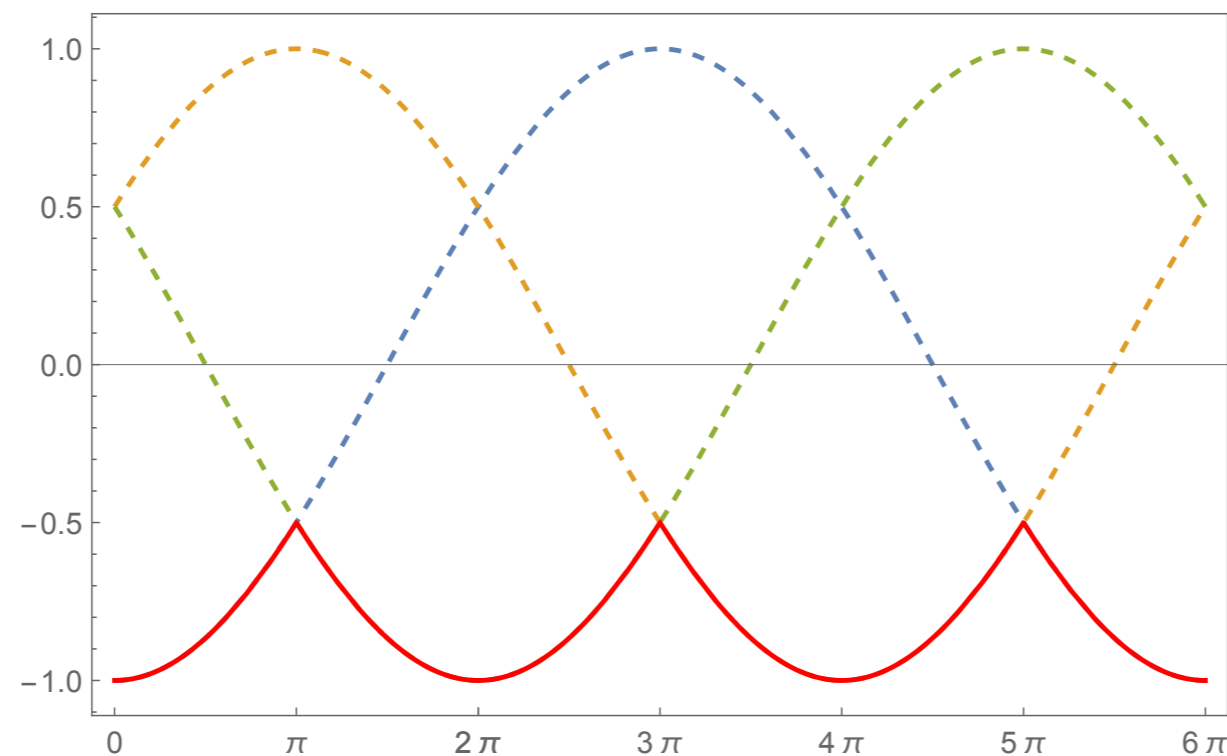
YB, Chen, Korwar, JHEP 12 (2023) 194



QCD with $\theta = \pi$

- ❖ In large N_c , the periodicity in θ and continuity of the vacuum energy function suggests a multibranched function

$$V(\theta) = -N_c^2 \Lambda^4 \min_k \left[\cos \left(\frac{\theta + 2\pi k}{N_c} \right) \right], \quad k = 0, \dots, N_c - 1$$



Dashen '1971; Witten '1980;
Gaiotto, Kapustin, Komargodski, Seiberg, '2017

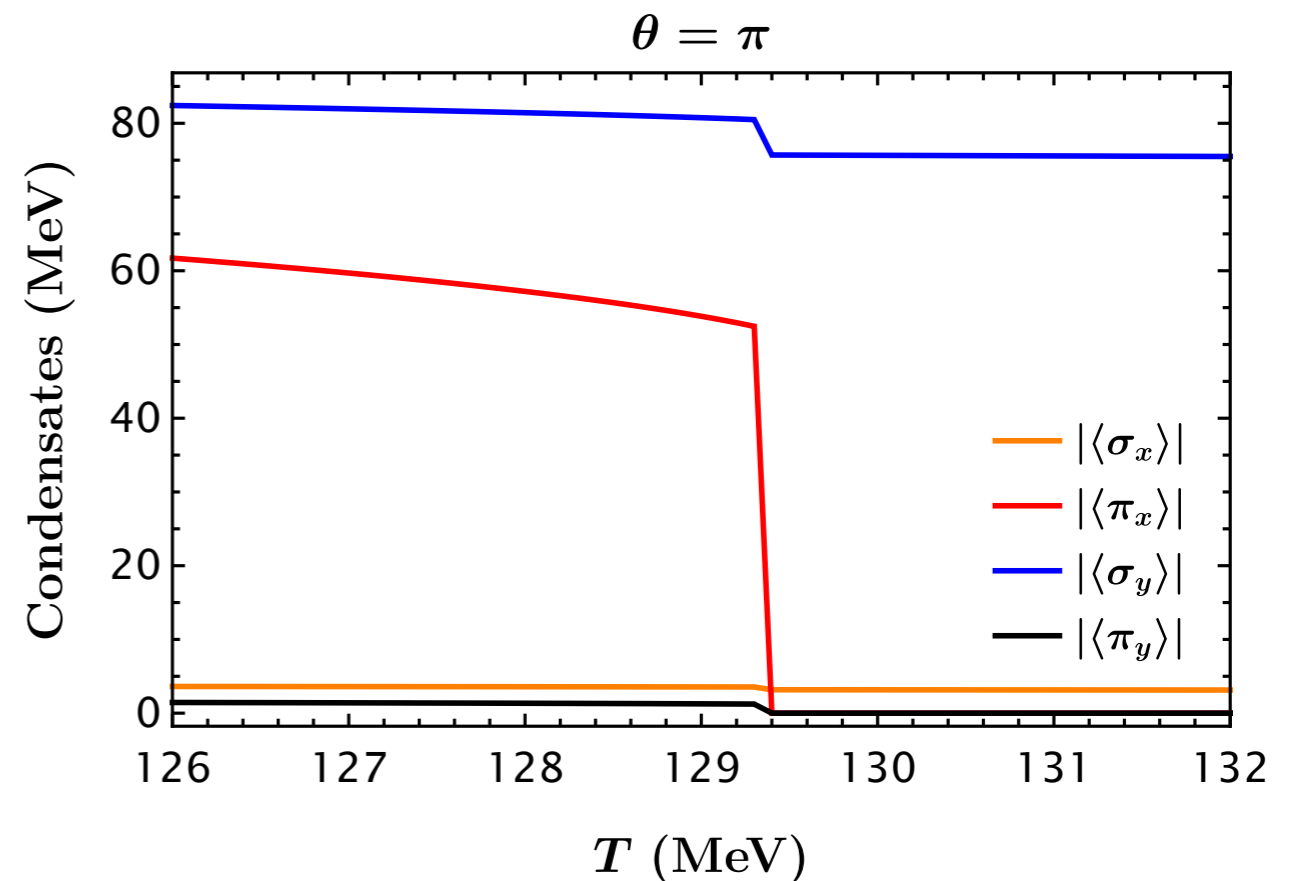
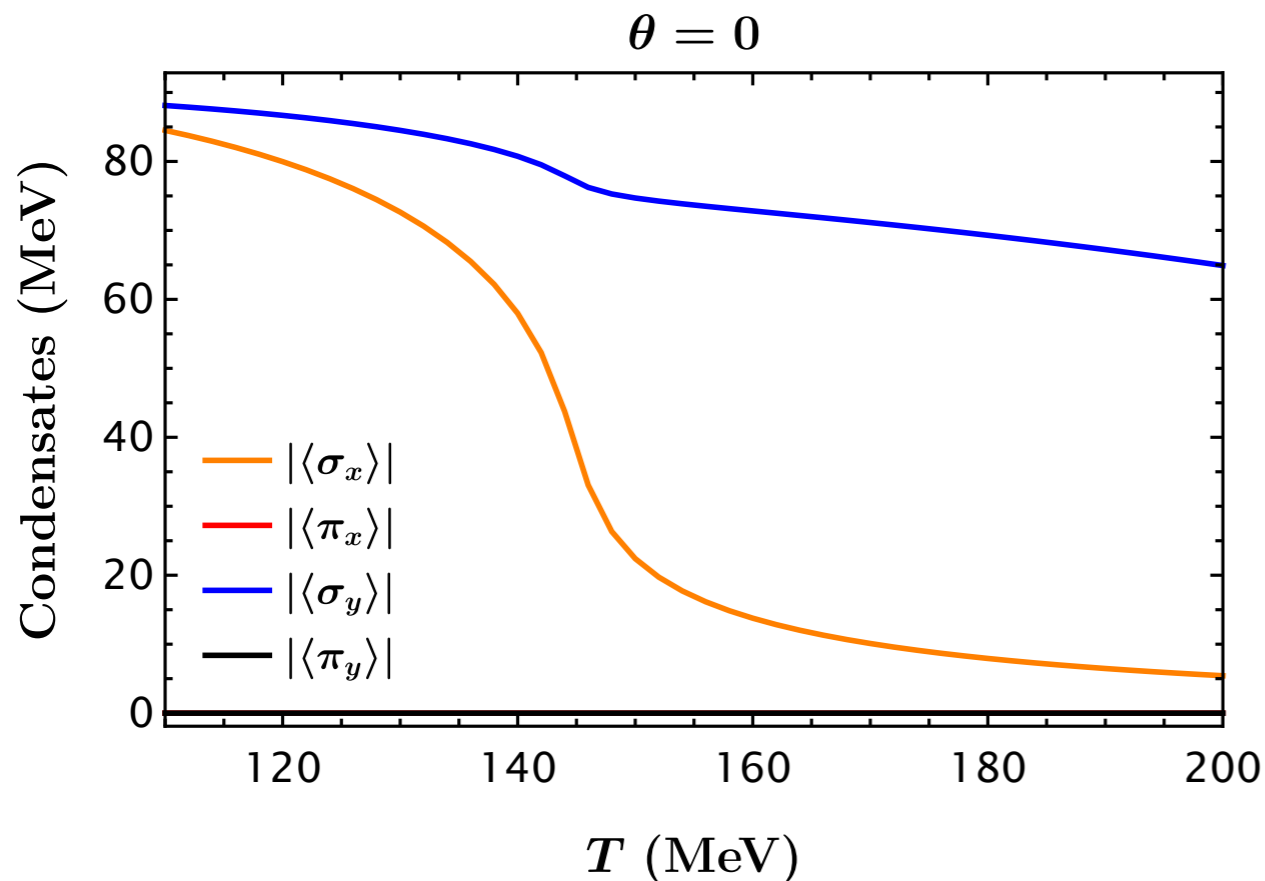


Phenomenological LSM q

$$V(\Phi) = \mu^2 \text{Tr} (\Phi^\dagger \Phi) + \lambda_1 \left[\text{Tr} (\Phi^\dagger \Phi) \right]^2 + \lambda_2 \text{Tr} \left[(\Phi^\dagger \Phi)^2 \right] - \frac{\kappa}{2} \left[e^{-i\theta} \det (\Phi) + e^{i\theta} \det (\Phi^\dagger) \right] - \text{Tr} \left[H (\Phi + \Phi^\dagger) \right]$$

Pisarski, hep-ph/9601316

$$\Phi = T_a (\sigma_a + i\pi_a) \quad H = T_a h_a \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{Yukawa}} \supset \bar{q} \left[-g T_a (\sigma_a + i\gamma^5 \pi_a) \right] q$$





QCD PT inside domains

- ❖ The early universe could have different domains with different effective θ angle

0	π	0	π	0
π	0	π	0	π
0	π	0	π	0
π	0	π	0	π

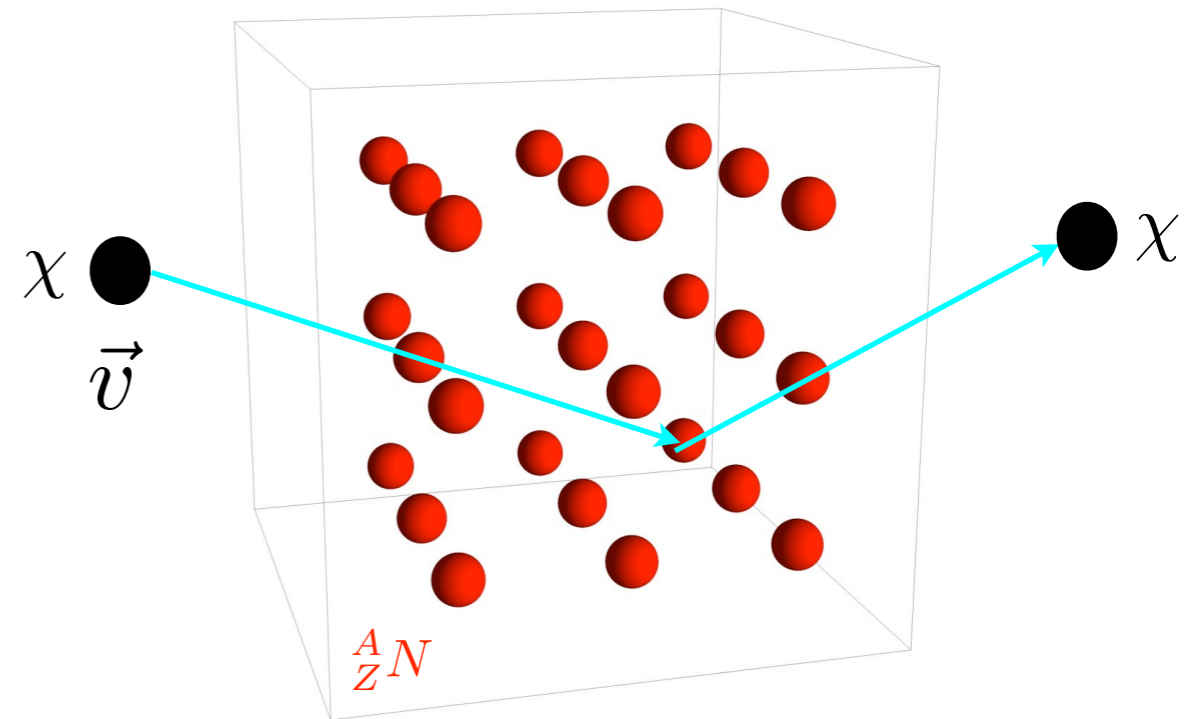
- ❖ One half of the domains could have FOPT for QCD



How to find it?

Direct Detection

- ❖ **A suppressed flux for a heavy quark nugget as dark matter**



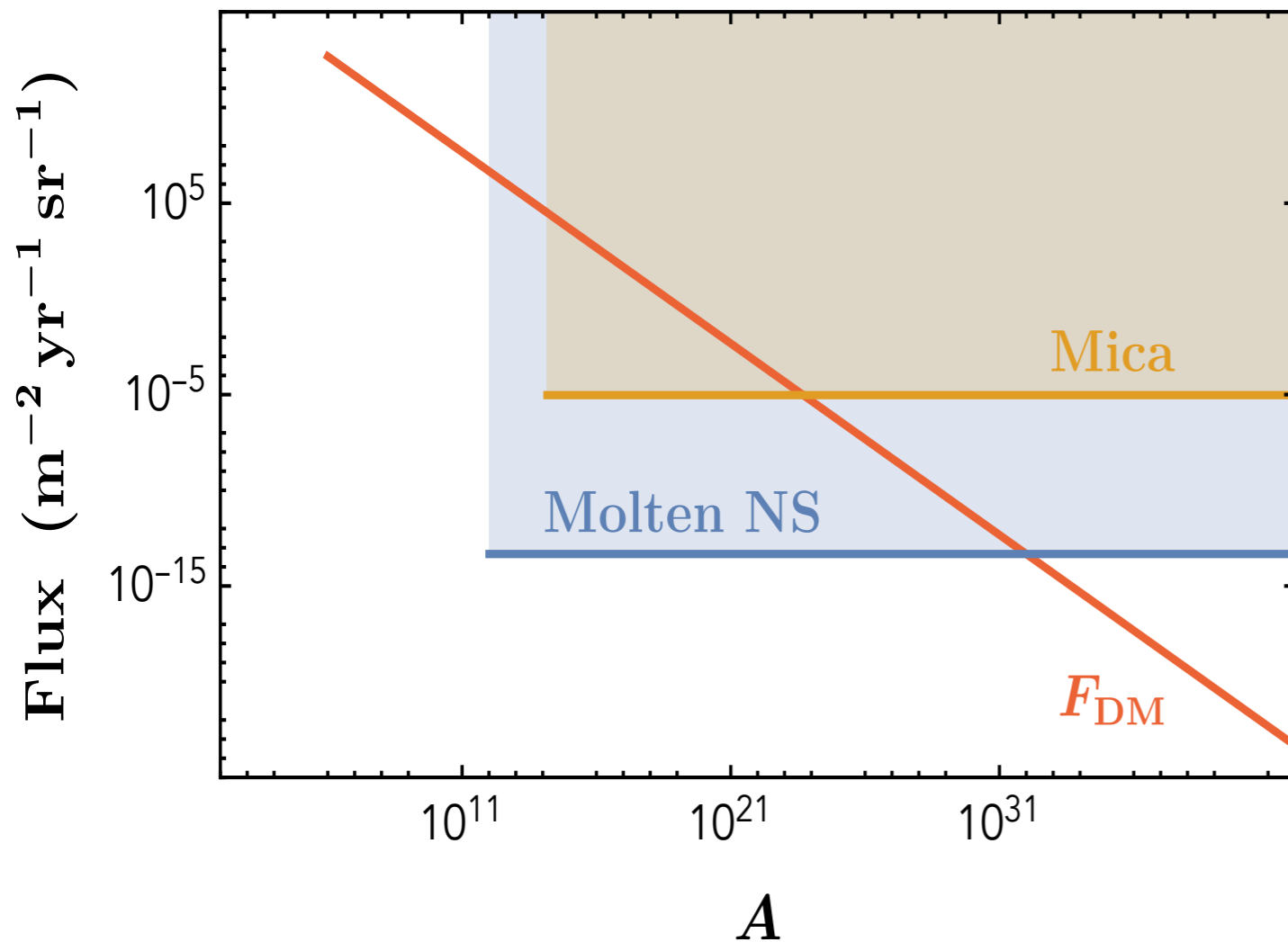
$$1 \sim \frac{\rho_{\text{DM}}}{m_{\text{DM}}} v_{\text{DM}} A_{\text{det}} t_{\text{exp}} \sim \frac{1 \text{ g}}{m_{\text{DM}}} \frac{A_{\text{det}}}{(100 \text{ m})^2} \frac{t_{\text{exp}}}{10 \text{ yr}}$$



Detectors with large $A_{\text{det}} t_{\text{exp}}$

De Rujula, Glashow, Nature, 312, 734, (1984)

Madsen, PRL, 61, 2909 (1988)



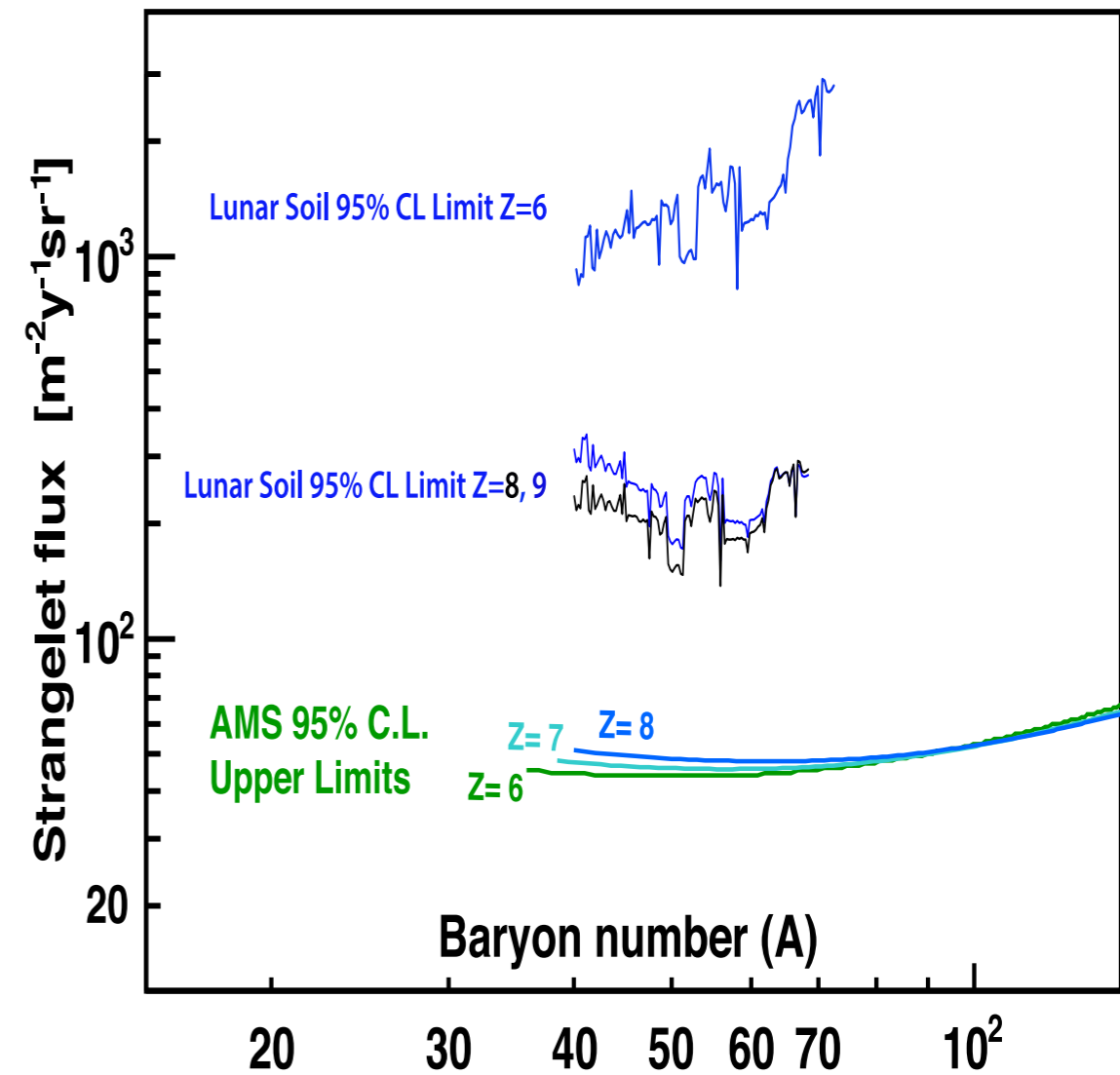
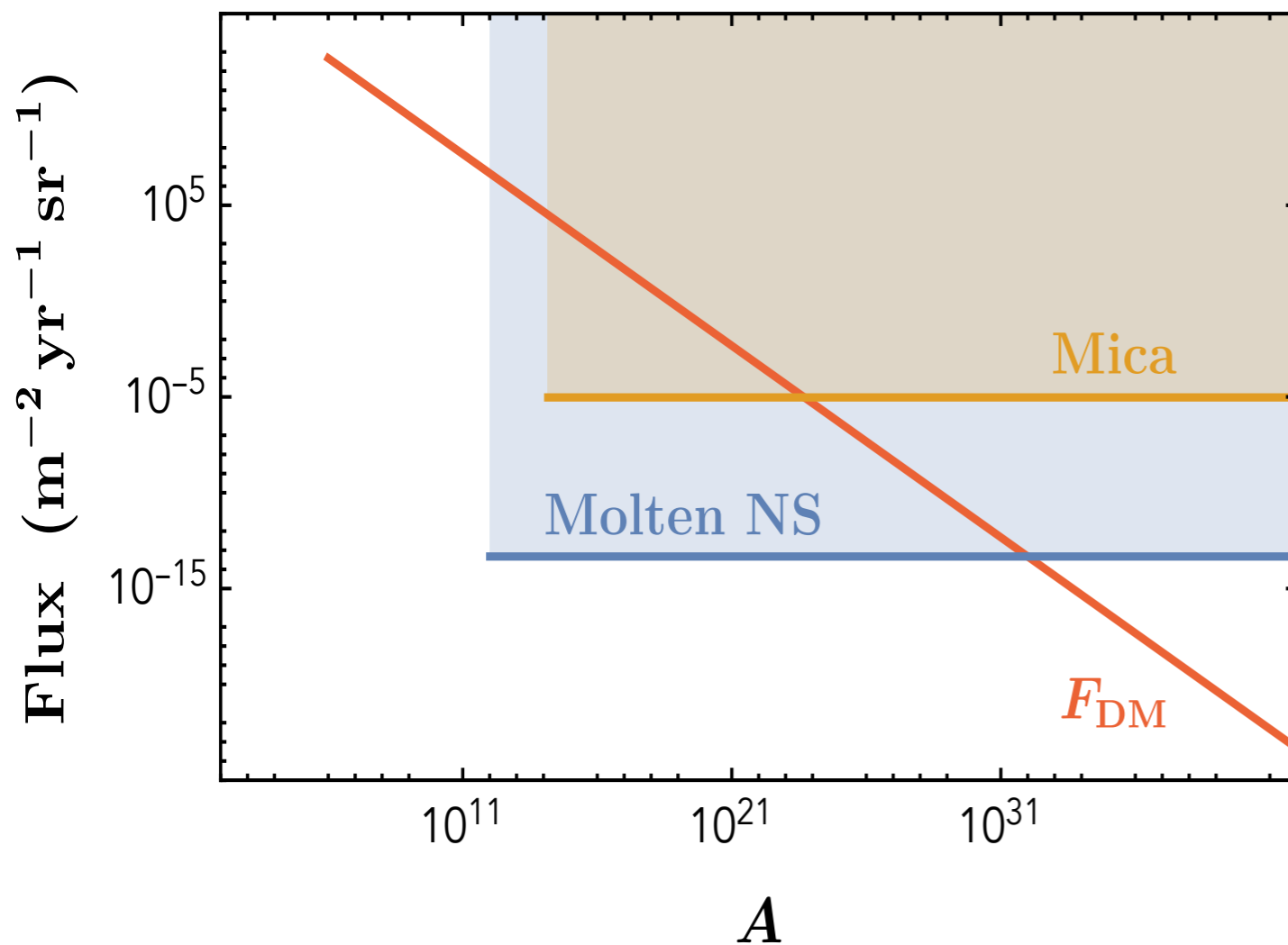


Detectors with large $A_{\text{det}} t_{\text{exp}}$

De Rujula, Glashow, Nature, 312, 734, (1984)

AMS, Phys. Reports, 894 (2021) I

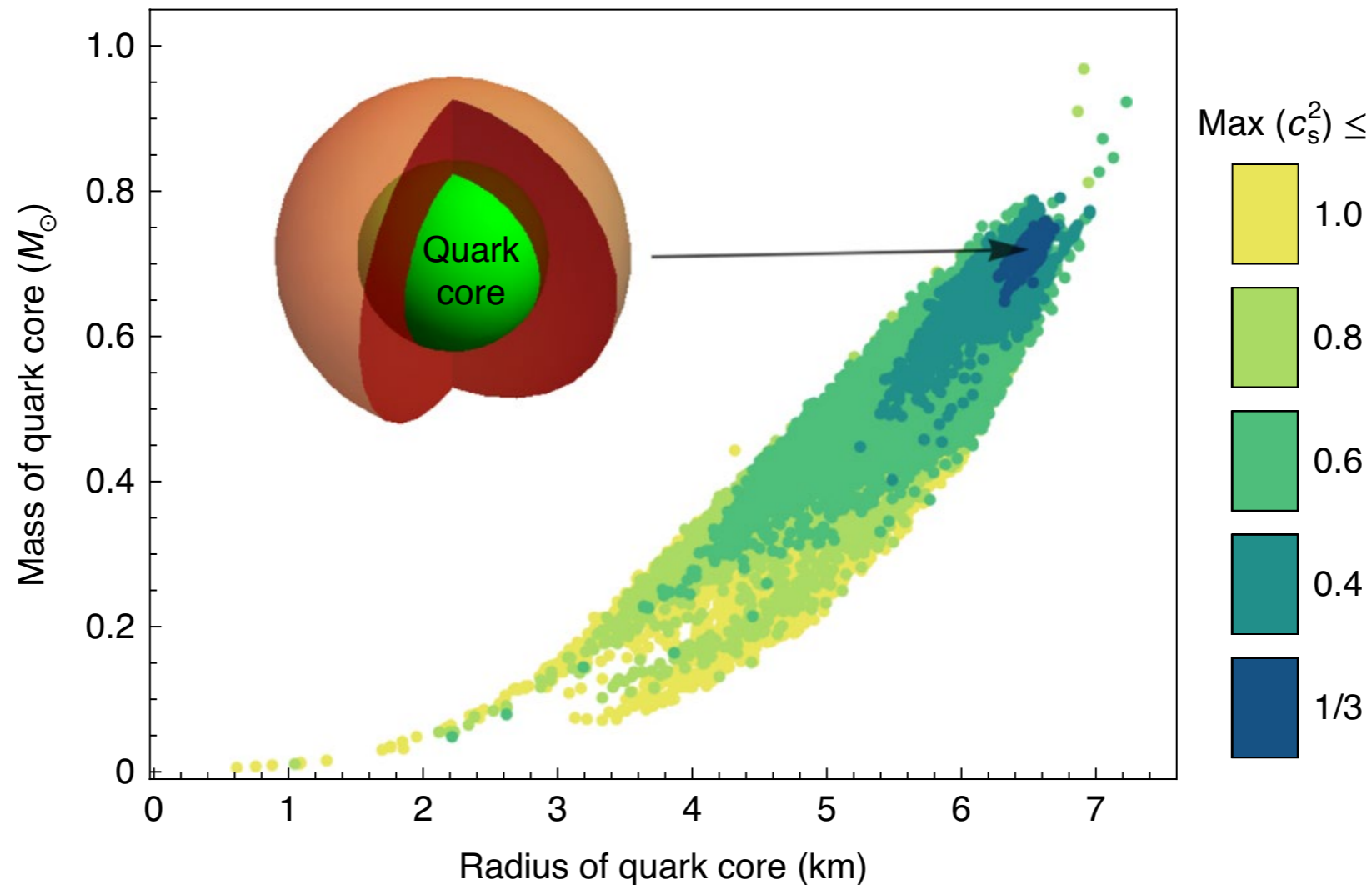
Madsen, PRL, 61, 2909 (1988)





New opportunities: Quark nuggets from NS mergers

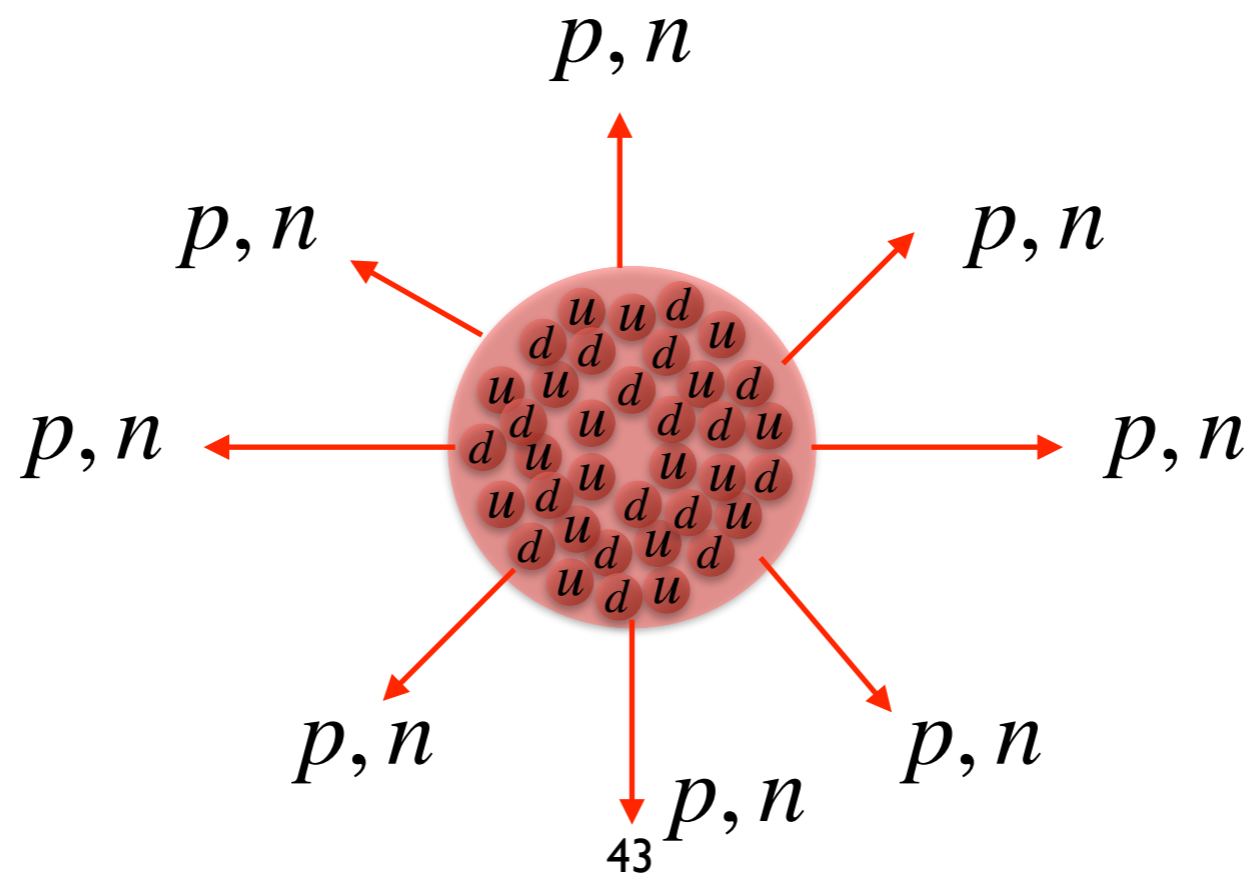
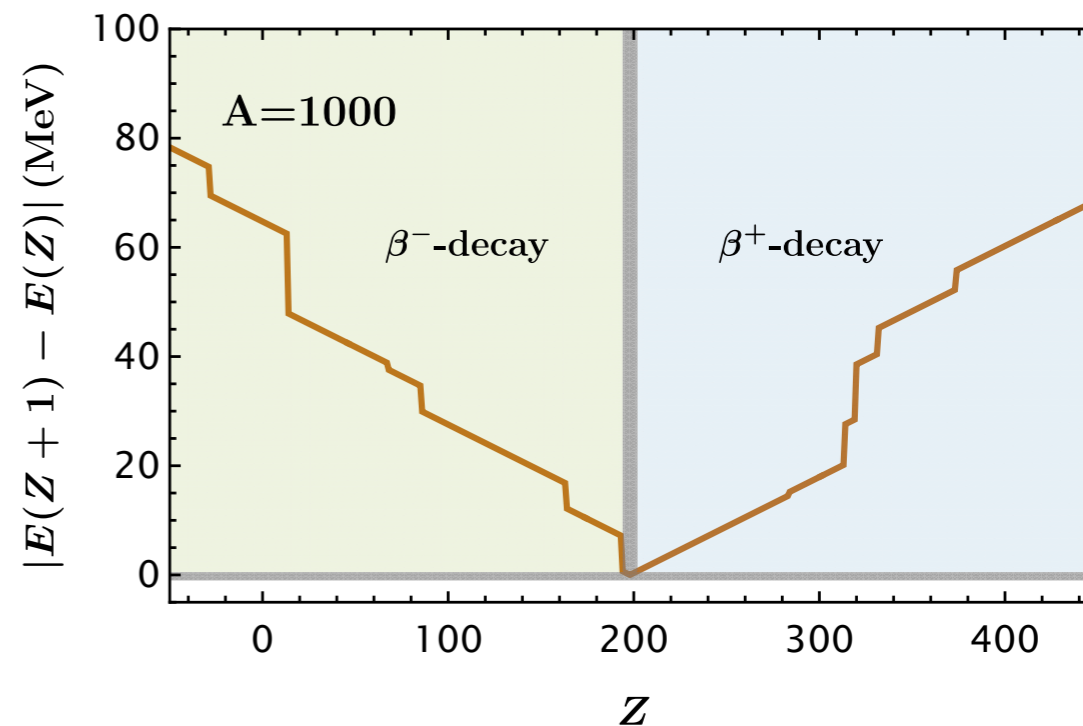
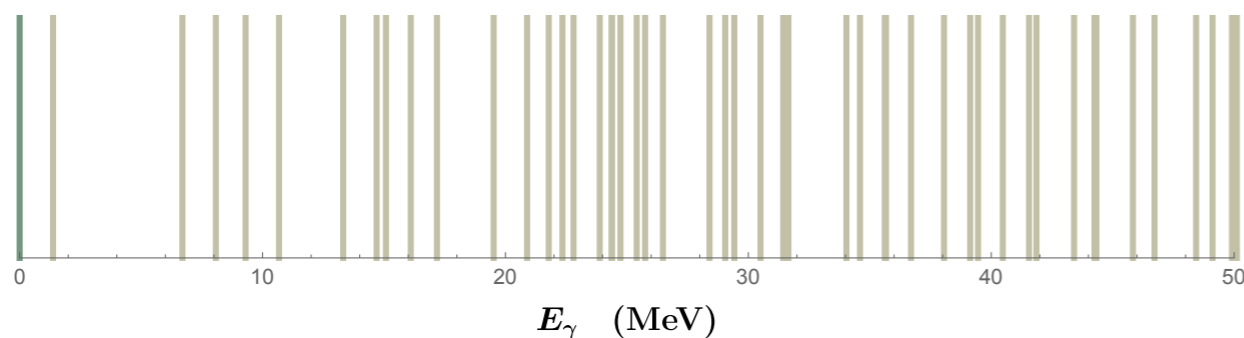
Annala et. al, Nature Physics, 907, vol 16 (2020)



❖ **How can we know that quark nuggets are produced there?**



Radioactivity of quark nuggets





To be understood

- ❖ **Distribution function in A for the generated quark nuggets**



- ❖ **Any unique features for the electromagnetic signatures from the radioactivity of “hot” quark nuggets?**
- ❖ **Can we distinguish them in the busy environment of neutron star merger events?**
- ❖ **Can we “measure” the vacuum pressure parameter using neutron star properties?**



Conclusions

- ❖ **“Exotic elements” or quark nuggets could exist in the QCD sector of the Standard Model.**
- ❖ **The quark nugget could be a dark matter candidate, with additional BSM physics that can modify the QCD phase transition.**
- ❖ **Neutron star mergers could produce quark nuggets on site. One may use the radioactivity properties of quark nuggets to observe them.**



Thanks!