Resonant Non-Gaussianity from Axion Monodromy Inflation

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Outline

Brief Introduction to CMB Observables
From the CMB to inflation (and to strings?)

- Basic Ingredients of Axion Monodromy Inflation
- Signatures in the CMBConclusions

Brief Introduction to CMB Observables







Multipole moment /

(Holmes et al. 2008)

Think of the detector as a device that counts the number of photons hitting it per unit time per unit area with a given polarization.

It then measures the intensity

 $\mathcal{I}(\mathbf{x}, \hat{n}, t, \gamma)$



 $+\frac{4\sqrt{Q^2(\hat{n})+U^2(\hat{n})}}{T_0}\cos\left(2\gamma(\hat{n})-\arctan\frac{U(\hat{n})}{Q(\hat{n})}\right)$

(Holmes et al. 2008)

Think of the detector as a device that counts the number of photons hitting it per unit time per unit area with a given polarization.

It then measures the intensity $\mathcal{I}(0, \hat{n}, t_0, \gamma) = \mathcal{I}_0 \left(1 + \frac{4\Delta T(\hat{n})}{T_0}\right)$



This is usually shown in the form of color-coded maps $\Delta T(\hat{n})$ (Jarosik et al. 2010)



The Stokes parameters Q and U can then also be shown as color-coded maps

(Jarosik et al. 2010)



Comparison with theory

These quantities depend on initial conditions and cannot be predicted theoretically. What can be predicted are the correlations

> $\langle \Delta T(\hat{n}) \Delta T(\hat{n}') \rangle$ $\langle \Delta T(\hat{n}) [Q(\hat{n}') + iU(\hat{n}')] \rangle$ $\langle [Q(\hat{n}) + iU(\hat{n})] [Q(\hat{n}') + iU(\hat{n}')] \rangle$ $\langle [Q(\hat{n}) + iU(\hat{n})] [Q(\hat{n}') - iU(\hat{n}')] \rangle$

as well as higher n-point functions.

Comparison with theory

It turns out to be more convenient to use coefficients

$$a_{T,\ell m} = \int d^2 \hat{n} \ Y_{\ell}^{m*}(\hat{n}) \Delta T(\hat{n})$$

$$a_{P,\ell m} = \int d^2 \hat{n} \ _2 Y_{\ell}^{m*}(\hat{n}) \left(Q(\hat{n}) + iU(\hat{n})\right)$$

$$a_{E,\ell m} \equiv -(a_{P,\ell m} + a_{P,\ell - m}^*)/2$$

$$a_{B,\ell m} \equiv i(a_{P,\ell m} - a_{P,\ell - m}^*)/2$$

Comparison with theory

The correlations between temperature fluctuations and polarization can then be given in terms of multipole coefficients $C_{XY,\ell}$ defined by

 $\begin{cases} \left\langle a_{T,\ell \,m} a_{T,\ell' \,m'}^{*} \right\rangle = C_{TT,\ell} \delta_{\ell\ell'} \delta_{mm'} , \\ \left\langle a_{T,\ell \,m} a_{E,\ell' \,m'}^{*} \right\rangle = C_{TE,\ell} \delta_{\ell\ell'} \delta_{mm'} , \\ \left\langle a_{E,\ell \,m} a_{E,\ell' \,m'}^{*} \right\rangle = C_{EE,\ell} \delta_{\ell\ell'} \delta_{mm'} , \\ \left\langle a_{B,\ell \,m} a_{B,\ell' \,m'}^{*} \right\rangle = C_{BB,\ell} \delta_{\ell\ell'} \delta_{mm'} . \end{cases}$

<u>Comparison with theory</u>

These multipole coefficients can be calculated for a given model, and they can be estimated from the sky maps by

$$C_{TT,\ell}^{\text{obs}} \equiv \frac{1}{2\ell+1} \sum_{m} \left| a_{T,\ell\,m}^{\text{obs}} \right|^2$$
$$a_{T,\ell\,m}^{\text{obs}} = \int d^2 \hat{n} \, Y_{\ell}^{m*}(\hat{n}) \Delta T(\hat{n})$$

and similarly for the others.

<u>Comparison with theory</u>

Similarly, the information about three-point correlations are contained in

 $\langle a_{X,\ell_1m_1}a_{Y,\ell_2m_2}a_{Z,\ell_3m_3}\rangle = \mathcal{G}_{\ell_1\ell_2\ell_3}^{m_1m_2m_3}b_{XYZ,\ell_1\ell_2\ell_3}$

Currently neither data nor analysis tools are good enough to measure this bispectrum directly. Instead the magnitude of the temperature bispectrum is constrained for different shapes.



 $ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + a(t)^{2}((1+A)\delta_{ij} + \partial_{i}\partial_{j}B + h_{ij})dx^{i}dx^{j}$



additional scalar modes include

 $\delta \rho_b, \delta \rho_c, \ldots$

tensor modes

 $C_{TT,\ell}, C_{TE,\ell}, C_{EE,\ell}, C_{BB,\ell}$

The system of equations that governs the evolution of the scalar modes from around few keV to the present contains equations like

$$\frac{k^2}{a^2}A_k + H\left(3\dot{A}_k - k^2\dot{B}_k\right) = 8\pi G\left(\delta\rho_{b\,k} + \delta\rho_{c\,b} + \overline{\rho}_{\gamma}\Delta_{T,0}^{(S)} + \overline{\rho}_{\nu}\Delta_{\nu,0}^{(S)}\right)$$
$$\delta\dot{\rho}_{c\,k} + 3H\delta\rho_{c\,k} + \frac{1}{2}\overline{\rho}_{c\,k}\left(3\dot{A}_k - k^2\dot{B}_k\right) = 0$$

$$C_{XX,\ell}^{(S)} = 4\pi T_0^2 \int \frac{dk}{k} \Delta_{\mathcal{R}}^2(k) \left| \int_0^{\tau_0} d\tau S_X^{(S)}(k,\tau) j_\ell(k(\tau_0 - \tau)) \right|_0^{\tau_0} d\tau S_X^{(S)}(k,\tau) j_\ell(k(\tau_0 - \tau)) \right|_0^{\tau_0} d\tau S_X^{(S)}(k,\tau) j_\ell(k(\tau_0 - \tau))$$

Initial Conditions Late time evolution

 $C_{XX,\ell}^{(S)} = 4\pi T_0^2 \int \frac{dk}{k} \Delta_{\mathcal{R}}^2(k) \int d\tau S_X^{(S)}(k,\tau) j_\ell(k(\tau_0 - \tau))$

Physics of Recombination

Geometry

In single field inflation (at linear order in spatially flat gauge):

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k},t) = -H \frac{\delta \phi(\mathbf{k},t)}{\dot{\phi}}$$

Initial conditions are set by

 $\langle \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k},t)\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k}',t)\rangle = (2\pi)^6 \delta(\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{k}') \frac{\Delta_{\mathcal{R}}^2(k)}{4\pi k^3}$

 $\langle \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k_1}, t) \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k_2}, t) \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k_3}, t) \rangle =$

$$(2\pi)^{7} \Delta_{\mathcal{R}}^{4} \frac{1}{k_{1}^{2} k_{2}^{2} k_{3}^{2}} \delta^{3}(\mathbf{k_{1}} + \mathbf{k_{2}} + \mathbf{k_{3}}) \frac{\mathcal{G}(k_{1}, k_{2}, k_{3})}{k_{1} k_{2} k_{3}}$$

For standard single field *slow-roll* inflation, the primordial spectrum of scalar perturbations is

$$\Delta_{\mathcal{R}}^2(k) = \frac{H^2(t_k)}{8\pi^2\epsilon(t_k)} \approx \Delta_{\mathcal{R}}^2\left(\frac{k}{k_*}\right)^{n_s-1}$$

with $n_s = 1 - 4\epsilon_* - 2\delta_*$

		S H
and	$\epsilon = -\frac{1}{H^2}$	$o = \overline{\frac{1}{2H\dot{H}}}$

and the 3-pt function is too small to be observed.

Comparison with theory

(Larson et al. 2010)



In addition to the scalar modes, inflation also predicts a nearly scale invariant spectrum of tensor modes

$$\Delta_h^2(k) = \frac{2H^2(t_k)}{\pi^2}$$

A measurement of the tensor contribution would provide a direct measurement of the energy scale of inflation!

The tensor-to-scalar ratio r

Whether the tensor contribution is observable is often discussed in terms of the tensor-to-scalar ratio

$$r = \frac{\Delta_h^2}{\Delta_R^2} = 16\epsilon$$

 $V_{\rm inf}^{1/4} = 1.06 \times 10^{16} \, GeV \left(\frac{r}{0.01}\right)^{1/4}$

 $\Delta \phi \approx \Delta N \sqrt{\frac{r}{8}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{r}{0.01}}$

WMAP+BAO+ H_0 :r < 0.24 (95% C.L.) (Komatsu et al. 2010)Future experiments: $r \sim 0.001$

(Bock et al. 2009)





 Inflation is UV sensitive and should be studied in a UV complete theory.

For r>0.01 the inflaton must have moved over a distance in field space larger than the Planck mass.

• One must ensure the required flatness of the potential over distances large compared to M_p , e.g. by a shift symmetry.

... and to strings

This makes axions natural candidates assuming one can break their shift symmetries in a controlled way.

At the level of effective field theories, this can be done. Can it be done in a theory of quantum gravity? (string theory)

Instanton effects may generate periodic contributions to the potential if the inflaton is an axion.

 $V(\phi) = V_0(\phi) + \Lambda^4 \cos\left(\frac{\phi}{f}\right)$

Basic Ingredients for Axion Monodromy Inflation

Consider string theory on $M \times X$

Axions arise from integrating gauge potentials over non-trivial cycles in the compactification manifold.

 $b_I(x) = \int_{\Sigma_I^{(2)}} B$ $c_\alpha(x) = \int_{\Sigma_\alpha^{(p)}} C^{(p)}$

where $\Sigma_{\alpha}^{(p)}$ is an element of an integral basis of $H_p(X, \mathbb{Z})$

These fields possess a shift symmetry to all orders in string perturbation theory.

The vertex operator for $b_I(x)$ in the limit of vanishing momentum is

 $V_{b_{I}}(0) = \int_{\mathcal{W}} d^{2}\xi \epsilon^{\alpha\beta} \partial_{\alpha} Y^{i} \partial_{\beta} Y^{j} \omega^{I}_{ij}(Y(\xi)) = \int_{\varphi(\mathcal{W})} \omega^{I}$

vanishes if $\varphi(\mathcal{W}) = \partial \mathcal{C}$ so that coupling vanishes.

Breaking by branes

For definiteness consider a D5-brane wrapping a two-cycle $\Sigma^{(2)}$ of size $L\sqrt{\alpha'}$.

$$S_{\text{DBI}} = -\frac{1}{(2\pi)^5 \alpha'^3 g_s} \int d^6 \xi \sqrt{\det(-\varphi^*(G+B))}$$

$$\supset -\frac{\epsilon}{(2\pi)^5 {\alpha'}^2 g_s} \int d^4x \sqrt{(4)g} \sqrt{L^4 + b^2}$$

Breaking by branes

This implies the following potential

$$V(b) = \frac{\epsilon}{(2\pi)^5 {\alpha'}^2 g_s} \sqrt{L^4 + b^2}$$

similarly for the $C^{(2)}$ axion in the presence of NS5 branes

 $V(c) = \frac{\epsilon}{(2\pi)^5 {\alpha'}^2 {g_s}^2} \sqrt{L^4 + {g_s}^2 c^2}$

Breaking by branes

For large field values in terms of the canonically normalized fields the potential then becomes

 $V(\phi) \approx \mu^3 \phi$

with	$\mu = \frac{\epsilon^{1/3} (2\pi)}{L^{10/3}}$	$\frac{g_s}{g_s}M_p$	for b
VVICII	$\mu - L^{10/3}$	3 ··· p	

 $\mu = \frac{\epsilon^{1/3} (2\pi)^3 g_s^{2/3}}{L^{10/3}} M_p \quad \text{ for c}$

The basic setup

- Type IIB orientifolds with O3/O7
- Stabilize the moduli a la KKLT



Consistency checks

The inflaton potential must be smaller than the potential barriers stabilizing the moduli.

The backreaction on the geometry must be controlled.

Higher derivative corrections must be negligible.

Instanton corrections must be controlled.

Instanton corrections may lead to interesting signatures.



 $\overline{K} = -2\log(\mathcal{V}_E + e^{-S_{ED1}}\cos(c))$

<u>Signatures of Axion</u> <u>Monodromy Inflation in the</u> <u>CMB</u>





The low energy effective field theory for Axion Monodromy Inflation is that of a single scalar field with canonical kinetic term, minimally coupled to gravity, with potential

$$V(\phi) = \mu^3 \phi + b\mu^3 f \cos(\phi/f)$$

Observable I: ns and r

(no instanton corrections b=0)



(Komatsu et al. 2010)

Observable I: ns and r

(no instanton corrections b=0)





Observable II: the primordial power spectrum

In the presence of instanton corrections, the power spectrum gets modified.

This modification is not captured by the slow-roll approximation for the power spectrum because of parametric resonance, and the Mukhanov-Sasaki equation has to be solved carefully.

Observable II: the primordial power spectrum



with $\epsilon = \epsilon_* - 3bf\sqrt{2\epsilon_*}\cos\left(\frac{\phi_k + \sqrt{2\epsilon_*}\ln x}{f}\right)$ $\delta = \delta_* - 3b\sin\left(\frac{\phi_k + \sqrt{2\epsilon_*}\ln x}{f}\right)$

Observable II: the primordial power spectrum

 $\frac{d^2 \mathcal{R}_k}{dx^2} - \frac{2(1 + \delta_{\text{osc}}(x))}{x} \frac{d\mathcal{R}_k}{dx} + \mathcal{R}_k = 0$

Look for a solution

$$\mathcal{R}_k(x) = \mathcal{R}_{k,0}^{(o)} \left[i \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} x^{3/2} H_{3/2}^{(1)}(x) - c_k^{(-)}(x) i \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} x^{3/2} H_{3/2}^{(2)}(x) \right]$$

Then for large x

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[e^{-2ix}\frac{d}{dx}c_k^{(-)}(x)\right] = -2i\frac{\delta_{\rm osc}(x)}{x}$$

Observable II: the primordial power spectrum



One finds

$$\Delta_{\mathcal{R}}^2(k) = \Delta_{\mathcal{R}}^2(k_*) \left(\frac{k}{k_*}\right)^{n_s - 1} \left[1 + \delta n_s \cos\left(\frac{\phi_k}{f}\right)\right]$$

with

$$\delta n_s = 3b \left(\frac{2\pi f}{\sqrt{2\epsilon_*}}\right)^{1/2}$$

(This assumes $\frac{f}{\sqrt{2\epsilon_*}} \ll 1$. For the general case see our paper.)

Constraints from WMAP5

S. CAR	Min	Max	Points
$\Omega_b h^2$	0.0212	0.0266	16
f	0.00009	0.1	512
δn_s	0	0.44	128
$\Delta arphi$	$-\pi$	π	32

33 million spectra

Constraints from WMAP5



Constraints from WMAP5



Constraints from WMAP5



Observable III: Resonant Non-Gaussianity

Models with large δ can lead to large non-Gaussianities (Chen, Easther, Lim 2008)

 $\langle \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k_1}, t) \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k_2}, t) \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k_3}, t) \rangle =$

 $-i \int_{-\infty}^{t} dt' \langle [\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k_1}, t) \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k_2}, t) \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{k_3}, t), H_I(t')] \rangle$

with

 $H_I(t) \supset -\int d^3x \ a^3(t)\epsilon(t)\dot{\delta}(t)\mathcal{R}^2(\mathbf{x},t)\dot{\mathcal{R}}(\mathbf{x},t)$

Observable III: Resonant Non-Gaussianity

After some algebra

$$\frac{\mathcal{G}(k_1, k_2, k_3)}{k_1 k_2 k_3} = \frac{1}{8} \int_0^\infty dX \frac{\dot{\delta}}{H} e^{-iX}$$

$$\left[-i - \frac{1}{X}\sum_{i \neq j} \frac{k_i}{k_j} + \frac{i}{X^2} \frac{K(k_1^2 + k_2^2 + k_3^2)}{k_1 k_2 k_3}\right] + c.c$$

Observable III: Resonant Non-Gaussianity

$$\frac{\mathcal{G}(k_1, k_2, k_3)}{k_1 k_2 k_3} = f^{\text{res}} \left[\sin\left(\frac{\ln K/k_*}{f\phi_*}\right) + f\phi_* \sum_{i \neq j} \frac{k_i}{k_j} \cos\left(\frac{\ln K/k_*}{f\phi_*}\right) \right]$$

with

 $K = k_1 + k_2 + k_3$ $f^{\text{res}} = \frac{3\sqrt{2\pi}b}{8(f\phi_*)^{3/2}}$

This satisfies the consistency condition.











Can we convert existing constraints on local, equilateral, and orthogonal shapes into constraints on this shape?



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Conclusions

The model has interesting signatures. These are a large tensor to scalar ratio, and potentially a modulated temperature anisotropy spectrum as well as resonant non-Gaussianities.

This kind of non-Gaussianities is currently poorly constrained and deserves further study independent of the stringy scenario.

Thank you