

# Dark SU(2) Antecedents of the U(1) Higgs Model

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## Abstract

The original spontaneously broken U(1) gauge model with one complex Higgs scalar field has been known in recent years as a possible prototype dark-matter model. Its antecedents in the context of SU(2) are discussed. Three specific examples are described, with one dubbed “quantum scotodynamics”.

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Consider the addition of the U(1)<sub>D</sub> Higgs model [1] to the standard SU(3)<sub>C</sub> × SU(2)<sub>L</sub> × U(1)<sub>Y</sub> gauge model (SM) of quarks and leptons. The former may be used for dark matter [2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8] because it has the built-in Z<sub>2</sub> symmetry where the massive gauge boson Z<sub>D</sub> after spontaneous symmetry breaking is odd and the one physical real scalar boson h<sub>D</sub> is even. However, U(1)<sub>D</sub> may mix kinetically [9] with U(1)<sub>Y</sub>, in which case the above Z<sub>2</sub> symmetry would be violated. To avoid this problem, it is suggested here that U(1)<sub>D</sub> be replaced with an SU(2) antecedent, with an enriched dark-matter sector. Three explicit examples will be discussed. Note that this version of dark SU(2) requires that it be broken to U(1), in contrast to the case where a local or global SU(2) dark symmetry remains [10].

To break SU(2)<sub>D</sub> to U(1)<sub>D</sub>, the simplest choice is a real scalar triplet

$$\chi = (\chi_1, \chi_2, \chi_3) \quad (1)$$

with  $\langle \chi_3 \rangle = v_3$ . In that case, the vector gauge bosons

$$W_D^\pm = \frac{D_1 \pm iD_2}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (2)$$

acquire mass given by  $m_{W_D}^2 = 2g_D^2 v_3^2$ . Note that the superscript  $\pm$  refers to dark charge, the details of which will be discussed later.

To break U(1)<sub>D</sub> in the context of SU(2)<sub>D</sub> so that D<sub>3</sub> = Z<sub>D</sub> acquires mass, a complex scalar doublet

$$\Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \phi_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3)$$

is used. Moreover, a global U(1)<sub>Φ</sub> symmetry is imposed, i.e.

$$\Phi \rightarrow e^{i\theta} \Phi, \quad (4)$$

which prevents the coupling of  $\vec{\chi}$  to the triplet  $\phi_i \epsilon_{ij} \vec{\sigma}_{jk} \phi_k$ . The scalar potential consisting of  $\chi$  and  $\Phi$  is then given by

$$V = m_2^2 \Phi^\dagger \Phi + \frac{1}{2} m_3^2 (\vec{\chi} \cdot \vec{\chi}) + \mu_0 \Phi^\dagger (\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\chi}) \Phi + \frac{1}{2} \lambda_2 (\Phi^\dagger \Phi)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda_3 (\vec{\chi} \cdot \vec{\chi})^2 + \lambda_4 (\Phi^\dagger \Phi) (\vec{\chi} \cdot \vec{\chi}). \quad (5)$$

Note that the triplet combination of two identical real scalar triplets is zero. The minimum of  $V$  admits a solution

$$\langle \chi_{1,2} \rangle = 0, \quad \langle \chi_3 \rangle = v_3, \quad \langle \phi_1 \rangle = 0, \quad \langle \phi_2 \rangle = v_2 / \sqrt{2}, \quad (6)$$

where  $v_2$  is assumed real without any loss of generality, and

$$0 = v_3 [m_3^2 + 2\lambda_3 v_3^2 + \lambda_4 v_2^2] - \mu_0 v_2^2 / 2, \quad (7)$$

$$0 = v_2 [m_2^2 + \lambda_2 v_2^2 / 2 + \lambda_4 v_3^2 - \mu_0 v_3], \quad (8)$$

provided that

$$m_2^2 + \lambda_4 v_3^2 + \mu_0 v_3 > 0, \quad (9)$$

$$m_2^2 + \lambda_4 v_3^2 - \mu_0 v_3 < 0. \quad (10)$$

As a result

$$m_{W_D}^2 = 2g_D^2 v_3^2 + \frac{1}{4} g_D^2 v_2^2, \quad m_{Z_D}^2 = \frac{1}{4} g_D^2 v_2^2, \quad m_{\phi_1}^2 = 2\mu_0 v_3, \quad (11)$$

and the 2 × 2 mass-squared matrix spanning h<sub>D</sub> = √2 Re(φ<sub>2</sub>) – v<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>D</sub> = χ<sub>3</sub> – v<sub>3</sub> is given by

$$\mathcal{M}_{h_D, H_D}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_2 v_2^2 & v_2 (2\lambda_4 v_3 - \mu_0) \\ v_2 (2\lambda_4 v_3 - \mu_0) & 4\lambda_3 v_3^2 + \mu_0 v_2^2 / 2v_3 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (12)$$

A global residual symmetry remains, under which

$$W_D^+, \phi_1 \sim +1, \quad W_D^-, \phi_1^* \sim -1, \quad Z_D, h_D, H_D \sim 0. \quad (13)$$

This comes from I<sub>3D</sub> + S<sub>Φ</sub>, where S<sub>Φ</sub> = 1/2 for Φ and zero for all other fields. It is possible because of the imposed global U(1)<sub>Φ</sub> symmetry. Whereas  $\langle \phi_2 \rangle = v_2 / \sqrt{2}$  breaks both I<sub>3D</sub> and S<sub>Φ</sub>, the linear combination I<sub>3D</sub> + S<sub>Φ</sub> is zero for φ<sub>2</sub>, so it remains as a residual dark symmetry.

An important consequence of this structure is the emergence of a dark charge conjugation symmetry as in the original Higgs model [1], i.e.

$$W_D^+ \leftrightarrow W_D^- (D_2 \leftrightarrow -D_2), \quad \phi_1 \leftrightarrow \phi_1^*, \quad Z_D(D_3) \leftrightarrow -Z_D(D_3). \quad (14)$$

This comes from the gauge-invariant terms

$$-\frac{1}{4}(\partial_\mu \vec{D}_\nu - \partial_\nu \vec{D}_\mu + g_D \vec{D}_\mu \times \vec{D}_\nu)^2 + |\partial_\mu \Phi - \frac{ig_D}{2} \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{D}_\mu \Phi|^2 \quad (15)$$

It means that  $Z_D$  is stable if its mass is less than twice that of  $\phi_1$ , in complete analogy to the  $U(1)_D$  model of Ref. [8]. This makes it possible in principle to implement the inception of self-interacting dark matter, i.e.  $\phi_1$  or  $W_D$  of order 100 GeV with  $Z_D$  as the light stable mediator of order 10 to 100 MeV, to explain [11] the observed core-cusp anomaly in dwarf galaxies [12]. If  $Z_D$  is unstable and decays to SM particles, as is the case for the light mediator proposed in most models, then very strong constraints exist [13] from the cosmic microwave background (CMB) which basically rule out [14] this scenario. On the other hand,  $h_D$  must also be light and decay quickly through its mixing with the SM Higgs boson  $h$  before big bang nucleosynthesis (BBN). In that case, the elastic scattering of  $W_D$  or  $\phi_1$  off nuclei through  $h_D$  exchange is much too large to be acceptable with the present data. In Ref. [8], this is not a problem because the dark matter is a Dirac fermion which couples to  $Z_D$  but not  $h_D$ .

As it is, this specific  $SU(2)_D$  antecedent of the  $U(1)$  Higgs model may still be a model of dark matter without addressing the core-cusp anomaly in dwarf galaxies. Assuming that  $W_D$  is heavy enough to decay into  $\phi_1 h_D$  and  $Z_D$  heavy enough to decay into  $\phi_1 \phi_1^*$ , then the complex scalar  $\phi_1$  may be considered dark matter. Assuming that  $h_D$  is lighter than  $\phi_1$ , the annihilation cross section of  $\phi_1 \phi_1^*$  at rest  $\times$  relative velocity is given by

$$\sigma(\phi_1 \phi_1^* \rightarrow h_D h_D) v_{rel} = \frac{\lambda_2^2 \sqrt{1-r_1}}{64\pi m_{\phi_1}^2} \left[ 1 + \frac{r_1(2+r_1)}{(2-r_1)(4-r_1)} \right]^2, \quad (16)$$

where  $r_1 = m_{h_D}^2 / m_{\phi_1}^2$ . Assuming as an example  $m_{\phi_1} = 150$  GeV and  $m_{h_D} = 100$  GeV, the above may be set equal to  $4.4 \times 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$  for  $\lambda_2 = 0.126$ .

There is always the allowed quartic  $\lambda_{2h}$  coupling between the  $SU(2)_D$  Higgs doublet and the  $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$  Higgs doublet of the SM, so that  $\phi_1$  interacts with quarks through the SM Higgs boson  $h$  in direct-search experiments. Using present data [15], it has been shown [16] that  $\lambda_{2h} < 4.4 \times 10^{-4}$ . This is also the mixing between  $h_D$  and  $h$ . Even with this limit on  $\lambda_{2h}$ , it can still be large enough so that  $h_D$  decays promptly to  $b\bar{b}$  in the early Universe. This interaction [8] also keeps  $h_D$  in thermal equilibrium with the particles of the SM.

Consider the addition of a fermion doublet

$$\Psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \end{pmatrix}_L \quad (17)$$

to the  $SU(2)_D$  model discussed in the previous section. It has the allowed interactions

$$i\bar{\Psi}\gamma^\mu(\partial_\mu - \frac{ig_D}{2}\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{D}_\mu)\Psi + [f\bar{\Psi}(\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\chi})\Psi + H.c.], \quad (18)$$

where  $\bar{\Psi} = (\psi_2, -\psi_1)_L$ . Since  $\langle \chi_3 \rangle = v_3$ , this shows that  $\psi_{1,2}$  combine to form a Dirac fermion of mass  $f v_3$ . To be specific, let  $\psi_{1L}$  be the left-handed component of the Dirac fermion  $\psi$ , and  $\psi_{2L}$  redefined as the conjugate of its right-handed component, i.e.  $\psi_{2L} \sim \bar{\psi}_R$ . Now  $\psi_1$  has dark charge 1/2 and  $\psi_2$  has dark charge  $-1/2$ . Together they form a Dirac fermion  $\psi$  of charge 1/2, which interacts vectorially with  $D_3 = Z_D$ . Note that  $\bar{\psi}\gamma_\mu\psi$  is odd under dark charge conjugation as expected. Note also that  $\psi$  has no direct coupling to  $h_D$  because of  $SU(2)_D$  gauge invariance. This allows the inception of self-interacting dark matter as described below.

Consider the elastic scattering of  $\psi$  with  $\bar{\psi}$  through the exchange of the light mediator  $Z_D$ . Its cross section in the limit of zero momentum is

$$\sigma(\psi\bar{\psi} \rightarrow \psi\bar{\psi}) = \frac{g_D^4 m_\psi^2}{64\pi m_{Z_D}^4} = \frac{m_\psi^2}{4\pi v_3^4}. \quad (19)$$

For the benchmark value of  $\sigma/m_\psi \sim 1 \text{ cm}^2/\text{g}$  for self-interacting matter, this is satisfied for example with

$$m_\psi = 100 \text{ GeV}, \quad v_3 = 200 \text{ MeV}. \quad (20)$$

This low-energy effective theory consisting of  $\psi$ ,  $Z_D$  and  $h_D$  may be dubbed quantum scotodynamics, from the Greek 'scotos' meaning darkness.

Consider now the annihilation of  $\psi\bar{\psi} \rightarrow Z_D Z_D$ . Since  $Z_D$  is much lighter than  $\psi$ , this cross section  $\times$  relative velocity is given by

$$\sigma(\psi\bar{\psi} \rightarrow Z_D Z_D) v_{rel} = \frac{g_D^4}{256\pi m_\psi^2}. \quad (21)$$

For  $m_\psi = 100$  GeV, and setting  $\sigma v_{rel} = 4.4 \times 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$ ,

$$g_D = 0.42 \quad (22)$$

is obtained, which implies from Eq. (11) that

$$m_{Z_D} = 42 \text{ MeV}. \quad (23)$$

As shown in Ref. [8], the light mediator  $Z_D$  is stable but annihilates quickly to  $h_D$  which decays. The cross section  $\times$  relative velocity is given by

$$\sigma(Z_D Z_D \rightarrow h_D h_D) v_{rel} = \frac{g_D^4 \sqrt{1-r}}{64\pi m_{Z_D}^2} \times \left[ \frac{4[r^2 + 4(2-r)^2]}{(4-r)^2} - \frac{24r(2+r)}{9(2-r)(4-r)} + \frac{8(2+r)^2}{9(2-r)^2} \right], \quad (24)$$

where  $r = m_{h_D}^2 / m_{Z_D}^2$ . Assuming  $m_{h_D} = 21$  MeV as an example so that  $r = 0.25$ , the above is equal to  $4 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$ , which is orders of magnitude greater than what is required for  $Z_D$  to be a significant component of dark matter. It may re-emerge at late times by  $\phi_1 \phi_1^*$  annihilation through Sommerfeld enhancement, but its fraction as dark matter remains negligible. Since  $Z_D$  is

stable, it would also not disturb [13, 14] the cosmic microwave background (CMB).

As for  $h_D$ , it is allowed to mix with the SM Higgs boson  $h$  in the  $2 \times 2$  mass-squared matrix

$$\mathcal{M}_{h_D, h}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_2 v_2^2 & \lambda_{2h} v_2 v_h \\ \lambda_{2h} v_2 v_h & m_h^2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (25)$$

where  $v_h = 246$  GeV and  $m_h = 125$  GeV. For  $m_{h_D} \ll m_h$ , the  $h_D - h$  mixing is  $\theta_{2h} = \lambda_{2h} v_2 v_h / m_{h_D}^2$ . Assuming

$$\lambda_{2h} = 0.01, \quad (26)$$

then  $\theta_{2h} = 3.15 \times 10^{-5}$  and the  $h_D$  lifetime for  $e^- e^+$  decay is given by

$$\Gamma^{-1}(h_D \rightarrow e^- e^+) = \frac{8\pi v_h^2}{m_{h_D} m_e^2 \theta_{2h}^2} = 0.184 \text{ s}, \quad (27)$$

which is short enough not to affect big bang nucleosynthesis (BBN). The decay of the SM Higgs boson to  $h_D h_D$  is given by

$$\Gamma(h \rightarrow h_D h_D) = \frac{\lambda_{2h}^2 v_h^2}{16\pi m_h} = 0.963 \text{ MeV}, \quad (28)$$

which is less than 25% of the SM width of 4.12 MeV and allowed by present data. Note that  $\lambda_2 = 0.0114$  in Eq. (25) for  $m_{h_D} = 21$  MeV. Note also the important fact that  $\psi$  does not couple directly to  $h_D$ , otherwise Eq. (26) would be impossible, as discussed in the previous section.

In summary, a successful description of self-interacting fermion dark matter ( $\psi$  with  $m_\psi = 100$  GeV) through a stable light vector gauge boson ( $Z_D$  with  $m_{Z_D} = 42$  MeV) in an  $SU(2)_D$  gauge model has been rendered. The Higgs scalar  $h_D$  associated with  $Z_D$  is also light (21 MeV), but it decays away quickly before the onset of BBN. Other heavier particles in the dark sector are  $W_D^\pm$  (which decays to  $\psi_1 \psi_1 / \psi_2 \psi_2$ ),  $\phi_1$  (which decays to  $W_D^+ h_D$ ), and  $H_D$  which mixes slightly with  $h$  and  $h_D$ .

In the previous two examples, an imposed symmetry of the  $SU(2)_D$  scalar doublet  $\Phi$ , i.e. Eq. (4), is necessary for obtaining a dark symmetry. Hence the latter is not predestined [17], i.e. not the automatic consequence of gauge symmetry and particle content. To have a predestined dark  $Z_2$  symmetry, the simpler scalar triplet is now replaced with a scalar quintet. This is analogous to having a fermion quintet [18] in the SM for minimal dark matter, i.e. for simplicity.

Consider thereby the real scalar quintet

$$\zeta = (\zeta^{++}, \zeta^+, \zeta^0, \zeta^-, \zeta^{--}) \quad (29)$$

with  $\langle \zeta^0 \rangle = v_5$ , then  $W_D^\pm$  obtains a mass given by  $m_{W_D}^2 = 6g_D^2 v_5^2$  from absorbing  $\zeta^\pm$ . This leaves  $\zeta^{\pm\pm}$  as physical scalar bosons with two units of dark charge, interacting with  $Z_D$ . The scalar potential consisting of  $\zeta$  and  $\Phi$  is then given by

$$V = m_2^2 \Phi^\dagger \Phi + \frac{1}{2} m_5^2 \zeta^\dagger \zeta + \frac{1}{2} \lambda_2 (\Phi^\dagger \Phi)^2 + \lambda_5 (\Phi^\dagger \Phi) (\zeta^\dagger \zeta) + V_3 + V_4, \quad (30)$$

where  $V_3$  contains the one cubic invariant formed out of 3 scalar quintets and  $V_4$  contains two quartic invariants. To show this explicitly, consider first the decomposition  $5 \times 5 = 1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + 9$ . Since 5 is assumed real, only the symmetric combinations of 1, 5, and 9 are possible. Now the product  $(5 \times 5) \times 5$  contains  $5, 5 \times 5$ , and  $9 \times 5$ . Only  $5 \times 5$  contains 1, hence there is just one cubic invariant. The product  $(5 \times 5) \times (5 \times 5)$  contains  $1 \times 1, 5 \times 5$ , and  $9 \times 9$ , which all contain 1, but only two are independent, resulting thus in two quartic invariants. As for a possible term connecting  $\zeta$  with  $\Phi$ , consider the triplet  $\phi_i \epsilon_{ij} \vec{\sigma}_{jk} \phi_k$  pointed out earlier. Whereas it is obvious that  $\zeta$  cannot couple to it because it is a quintet, but if the product  $\zeta \times \zeta$  contains a triplet, then a quartic term would exist which violates  $U(1)_\phi$ . As it is, such a triplet is identically zero as explained in the above. Note that if a quartet were used,  $4 \times 4$  would contain a triplet, because 4 is necessarily complex. Similarly, a sextet would not work. A real septet is possible as well as any real odd-dimensional representation higher than 5. Thus the scalar potential of Eq. (30) has automatically the necessary extra  $U(1)_\Phi$  symmetry, so that  $I_{3D} + S_\Phi$  remains unbroken as  $\phi_2$  acquires a vacuum expectation value  $v_2 / \sqrt{2}$  as explained previously.

Assuming that

$$m_\zeta < 2m_{\phi_1} < m_{Z_D} < m_{W_D}, \quad (31)$$

then  $W_D^+$  decays to  $\phi_1 h_D$ ,  $Z_D$  decays to  $\phi_1 \phi_1^*$ , but both  $\phi_1$  and  $\zeta$  are stable. Hence this is an explicit example of two-component dark matter under one dark  $U(1)$  symmetry. Let

$$m_\zeta = 200 \text{ GeV}, \quad m_{\phi_1} = 150 \text{ GeV}, \quad m_{h_D} = 100 \text{ GeV}, \quad (32)$$

then using Eq. (16) for  $\sigma_1(\phi_1 \phi_1^* \rightarrow h_D h_D) v_{rel}$  and the analogous

$$\sigma_2(\zeta \zeta^* \rightarrow h_D h_D, \phi_1 \phi_1^*) v_{rel} = \frac{\lambda_5^2 \sqrt{1-r_2}}{64\pi m_\zeta^2} \times \left[ 1 + \frac{2(\lambda_5/\lambda_2)r_2}{2-r_2} - \frac{3r_2}{4-r_2} \right]^2 + \frac{\lambda_5^2 \sqrt{1-r_3}}{32\pi m_\zeta^2} \left[ 1 - \frac{r_2}{4-r_2} \right]^2, \quad (33)$$

where  $r_2 = m_{h_D}^2 / m_\zeta^2$  and  $r_3 = m_{\phi_1}^2 / m_\zeta^2$ , the condition for the correct relic abundance is roughly given by

$$\langle \sigma_1 v_{rel} \rangle^{-1} + \langle \sigma_2 v_{rel} \rangle^{-1} = (4.4 \times 10^{-26} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s})^{-1}. \quad (34)$$

It has for example the reasonable solution  $\lambda_5 = \lambda_2 = 0.173$ , in which case  $\phi_1$  is 53% and  $\zeta$  47% of dark matter. Again the mixing of  $\zeta$  with the SM Higgs boson  $h$  must be small as it is for  $\phi_1$  to satisfy direct-search limits as discussed previously.

In this scenario, the addition of the fermion doublet of Eq. (17) could also provide a low-energy effective theory of quantum scotodynamics with light  $Z_D$  and  $h_D$ . In that case,  $\zeta^{\pm\pm}$  would decay into  $W_D^\pm W_D^\pm$ ,  $\phi_1$  would decay into  $W_D^+ h_D$ , and  $W_D^\pm$  would decay into  $\psi_1 \psi_1 / \psi_2 \psi_2$ .

Exploring the possible  $SU(2)$  antecedents of the famous  $U(1)$  Higgs model for a nontrivial application to dark matter, three interesting examples have been identified and discussed. The minimal version with one real scalar triplet  $\chi$  and one complex scalar doublet  $\Phi$  admits  $\phi_1$  as dark matter, but a global  $U(1)$  symmetry has to be imposed. With the addition of a fermion doublet  $\psi$ , the inception of self-interacting dark matter may be implemented successfully, avoiding all potential astrophysical and laboratory constraints. A third example replaces  $\chi$  with the real scalar quintet  $\zeta$ , in which case the dark  $U(1)$  symmetry becomes predestined, i.e. automatic from the gauge symmetry and particle content.

Since all these scenarios are based on an extended dark  $SU(2)_D$  sector, they are only confirmed if the heavier gauge bosons  $W_D^\pm$  and heavier scalar bosons  $H_D$  or  $\zeta^{\pm\pm}$  could be observed. This is a very challenging phenomenological question because the only connection between the dark sector and the SM is through the SM Higgs boson. It is unfortunately, a generic feature of all dark-matter proposals using this so-called Higgs portal. The focus here is rather on a possible theoretical understanding of where dark matter may come from.

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