

Dark matter searches and energy accumulation and release in materials

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Abstract

As the identification of dark matter is attracting more effort, progress in the detectors looking for direct low-energy interactions with hypothetical dark matter particles starts to reveal other, parallel condensed matter and chemical mechanisms producing small energy releases inside our most sensitive detectors. We argue that the excess low-energy backgrounds in many dark matter searches are caused by processes of energy accumulation and delayed releases in detectors. Systems with energy flow were first studied by Ilia Prigogine and later by self-organized criticality theory. Effects of this type remain insufficiently investigated and could be unfamiliar to the dark matter community. We briefly introduce relevant phenomena and theoretical ideas and present our result on energy accumulation and delayed releases in NaI(Tl) scintillation detector. We also discuss backgrounds in solid-state low-temperature particle detectors and superconducting photon sensors and make predictions for new phenomena we expect to be present in these devices.

1 Introduction

A plausible resolution of the dark matter problem would be the direct detection of dark matter particles. Expectations are that rare nuclear recoils produced by these particles can be observed in sensitive detectors operating underground at low background radiation conditions. Low-energy recoils also can be caused by atmospheric and solar neutrinos- an effect thought to put a sensitivity limit on terrestrial searches for low-energy recoils caused by dark matter particles. On the other hand, as low-energy sensitivity improves, many detectors start to see a large number of not-well-identified low-energy events Noble liquids dual-phase detectors can detect sub-keV recoils where very few electrons and photons are produced [1]. Recent progress in solid-state low-temperature detectors allows the detection of 10-1 eV energy deposition events [2,3]. The spectra of events observed in many detectors often rise sharply towards low energies, and the number of these low-energy events is larger than expected low-energy neutrino interactions. These backgrounds rise with ionization load and are much larger for detectors operating above ground; in solid-state detectors, background rises with mechanical stress in the detector material. We can assume that we are dealing with rare, condensed matter

38 or chemical events leading to small energy releases inside our detectors. There are various
39 ways energy can be pumped into and stored inside materials. For materials and systems out
40 of the thermal equilibrium, where interactions of excitations, defects, and other objects or
41 sub-systems bearing the excess energy are present, avalanche-like energy relaxation events
42 (energy-release events) and other complex dynamic phenomena can take place. Thus, we
43 hypothesize that relaxational events can mimic rare low-energy interactions with particles.

44 In this paper, we will discuss solid detector materials. We present our experimental result
45 on energy accumulation and delayed release as luminescence in NaI(Tl), make predictions of
46 new effects in low-temperature solid-state detectors, and suggest experiments to look for re-
47 laxational avalanches at much smaller energies range – down to 10 meV – in superconducting
48 IR photon (quantum) sensors. Possible mechanisms of energy or charge accumulation and re-
49 leases in Noble Liquid dual-phase detectors are discussed in [4]. Accumulation of unextracted
50 electrons on the liquid-gas interface can lead not only to the production of parasitic signals,
51 but and possibly to Wigner crystallization of surface-bound electrons, and suppression of elec-
52 tron extraction for small signals produced below the liquid surface. This discussion will be
53 published elsewhere [5].

54 2 Excess low-energy backgrounds

55 The presence of low-energy ionization events with the production of very few electrons (1, 2,
56 3, 4,...8) and the number of events rising sharply to a single electron limit was reported in
57 many noble-liquid dual-phase detectors deployed for dark matter particles searches starting
58 with XENON 10 experiment [6], than XENON 100 [7], XENON 1T [8], and Dark Side 50
59 (50 kg liquid Argon target) [9] detectors (see also Fig.2 in [4]). These ionization events
60 cannot be caused by thermal fluctuations- ionization energies of Xe and Ar are too high. Low-
61 energy particles cannot penetrate deep inside detectors because of self-shielding by pure Xe
62 (Ar) liquid, and low-angle Compton scattering of gammas necessary required observation of
63 larger-angle scattering events at a rate that is not present. On the other hand, the energy
64 required for ionization, or ions could be already present in the detector. If energy or trapped
65 charge releases can take the form of small avalanches – then the resulting event spectra could
66 be of observed type – as we discuss below.

67 Energy can accumulate in the materials due to residual and cosmogenic radioactivity. Not
68 all energy is transformed into heat and luminescence immediately following ionization events-
69 defects, trapped ions, chemical radicals, and other long-lived excitations can be accumulat-
70 ing in the materials [10]. David Nygren has suggested that this stored energy is responsible
71 for low-energy background events in the NaI(Tl) scintillators [11]. Detection of several lumi-
72 nescence photons during the sub- μ s interval is considered an event in NaI(Tl) scintillator, and
73 pulse-shape discrimination is used to select events resembling luminescence pulses produced
74 by particles in DAMA-LIBRA [12] and similar experiments (see, for example, [12]).

75 In low-temperature solid-state detectors [2,3], researchers are looking for events that are
76 spikes of the temperature of the target crystal, detection of hot phonon bursts by supercon-
77 ducting transition edge sensors placed at the target crystal surface, detection of a small current
78 pulse when an electric field is applied to the target crystal, detection luminescence bursts with
79 photon detectors surrounding target crystal- and combinations of these effects as additional
80 criteria to select events produced by low-energy interactions with particles. Interestingly, in
81 many detectors, the number of events rises sharply for the event energies below about 10 eV
82 [2,3]. There is a growing amount of evidence that at least part of these events is produced by
83 the thermo-mechanical stress in target crystals [3]. We will discuss below that more mecha-
84 nisms can put excess energy into low-temperature detectors, eventually leading to relaxation

85 events resembling stress-induced events.

86 **3 Ilia Prigogine's consideration of system with energy flow and** 87 **self-organized criticality theory**

88 For a system with energy flow and away from thermal equilibrium, Ilia Prigogine [14] postu-
89 lated several general principles, like the formation of dissipative systems (this can be a pattern
90 of convection or sequence of chemical reactions), transitions from havoc to order, and gen-
91 eration of complexity. Prigogine ideas are important for understanding the origin of life and
92 the functioning of the live cell. Still, they are applicable to non-organic systems where in-
93 ternal interactions can lead to correlations in energy dissipation processes, self-organization,
94 self-reproduction of structures, etc. Unfortunately, for many important detector applications,
95 interactions inside materials are not known in sufficient detail to build ab initio theoretical
96 models.

97 Self-Organized Criticality theory (SOC) [15,16] analyzed the results of computer dynamics
98 simulation for large multi-particle systems with known interactions between particles. For the
99 system where avalanche-like relaxation takes place (a sand pile when more material is added
100 to the top is an example) some common features can be observed: the spectrum of relax-
101 ational events (avalanches) is decreasing with event energy polynomially (not exponentially),
102 so catastrophic events are possible; power noise spectrum is close to $1/f$ (pink noise), pumping
103 energy into the system by small quanta can result in large relaxation events, and reinforce-
104 ment of relaxation on small scale can lead to suppression of large relaxation events (placing
105 the sand pile on a vibrating plate). Several examples are known in condensed matter physics
106 where the experimental statistic is close to model calculation predictions: crack formation in
107 materials under stress [17] and production of quantized vortexes in superconductors when
108 the critical current density is reached [18].

109 Thus, when we see the spectrum of background events rising toward low energies, or a
110 noise power spectrum close to $1/f$ is present, we can suspect that a SOC-like dynamic is present.
111 Then we need to ask if energy can be stored in our material or system, what are the sources of
112 this energy, and if energy-bearing states can interact. In experiments, we can try to increase or
113 decrease the energy influx into our system or try quenching energy-bearing states. Pumping
114 energy into the system by small quanta and looking for the appearance of "up-conversion-like
115 events" is another possibility. The spontaneous transition of qubits into an excited state or the
116 appearance of a hot photon in a cold superconducting resonator could be examples of actual
117 up-conversion events when energy is pumped into the materials by small (sub-gap) quanta.

118 **4 Understanding of glasses**

119 At temperatures below the glass transition, amorphous (disordered) materials are out of ther-
120 modynamic equilibrium, and relaxation toward a lower energy state (like the formation of
121 small crystals in a glass) can continue for hundreds of years. Relaxation processes in the glass
122 state (response to force or other stimuli) became long and dependent on the internal state
123 of the material, i.e., history-dependent. Relaxation can involve changing internal stress and
124 other parameters, like dielectric constant; both applications of force or electric field can cause
125 long relaxation processes. When the force or electric field is applied and then removed, glass
126 can be brought into a state with higher internal energy, i.e., energy can be pumped into the
127 system with glass-like relaxation properties by application of electric or magnetic fields, stress,
128 etc.

129 At low temperatures, many subsystems in materials demonstrate complex and history-
130 dependent relaxation properties. As examples, we can name charges and spins localized on
131 boundaries and interphases in SQUIDs [19], the motion of charges in dielectric substrate
132 probed by single-electron transistors on the surface [20], magnetic moments of impurities
133 in superconductors forming spin glass [21].

134 Glass properties become more complex at Ultra-Low Temperatures (below mK); organic
135 and non-organic glasses start to demonstrate the memory effect- dielectric constant “remem-
136 ber” the electric field in which material was cooled to low temperatures [22].

137 A dominant theoretical approach to glasses is based on a tunneling two-level systems model
138 developed in the 1970s [23,24]. The TLS model is also widely used to describe noise and deco-
139 herence in superconducting sensors and qubits [25]. The TLS model postulates the existence
140 of objects in material that are multi-particle configurations with two closely arranged mini-
141 mal energy states/configurations such that tunneling in between these states/configurations
142 is possible. Each TLS is described with two parameters: energy differences between the two
143 adjacent minima and tunneling coupling/probability. Two-level systems were assumed to be
144 non-interactive [23,24], and the universality of properties of different glasses originate in the
145 universality of TLS parameters distribution in different materials. The TLS models successfully
146 describe many properties of glasses, but, as Antony Leggett points out [26], the TLS model may
147 not be the only model suited to describe these properties. The microscopic models for TLS with
148 required parameters are still debated (see discussion in [25]).

149 In Prigogine’s approach interactions between energy-bearing states lead to new emerging
150 phenomena, which is also correct for the SOC theory. Authors of [22] also highlighted the
151 importance of internal interactions in ultra-low temperature glasses. The above discussion
152 demonstrates that the description of glasses and decoherence with TLS may be incomplete- it
153 likely is missing phenomena emerging from interactions between energy-bearing states. Ob-
154 servation of energy up-conversion effects when energy is pumped into the material by small
155 quanta would be important for demonstrating the role of internal interactions.

156 5 Delayed luminescence in NaI(Tl)

157 The Saint-Gobain company, the main manufacturer of NaI(Tl) crystal scintillators, has warned
158 on web site and in other documentation that mild exposure of crystal to UV light may lead to
159 the appearance of low rate (few per second) scintillation pulses resembling irradiation with
160 keV -range energy electrons and these pulses disappear by itself in several hours or days.
161 This looks like an up-conversion effect we expect to see for SOC-like dynamics. As no other
162 information is provided by the company, we tried to reproduce these experiments [28]. We
163 also expected [5] that after-luminescence can be suppressed by exposure to red or IR light, as
164 such exposure suppresses thermally stimulated luminescence in alkali-metal halides [29]. We
165 have found [28] that exposure to UV light results in delayed luminescence response lasting
166 several days, and that exposure to energetic electrons from a Co-60 source leads to delayed
167 luminescence lasting several hours, see Fig.1. We also confirmed that single energetic particle
168 events and muons are causing a slight increase in background photon emission; to see this
169 effect one needs to do averaging of response (traces) for many energetic particles. The delayed
170 luminescence signals we observed after UV exposure was mostly random photon emission
171 processes. Saint-Gobain researchers were not discussing the existence of this random flux of
172 uncorrelated single photons and how particle-like pulsed were selected. Right after exposure
173 to UV light delayed luminescence in our experiments was too intense to be separate well-
174 defined events (photon bursts). As intensity became close to equilibrium background photon
175 emission, more data is required to check that photon bursts present in excess of what one

176 can expect from a random coincidence in the number of photons detected during a short
 177 time interval. We used coincidences of photon detection by right and left PMTs to trigger data
 178 acquisition and applied a pulse-shape discrimination analysis similar to the analysis used by the
 179 DAMA-LIBRA experiments [30]. The leakage into the “particle-like” domain was dependent on
 180 the left-right coincidence interval, the length of the photon counting window, and a choice of
 181 “separate event” criteria, i.e., the absence of photons for some time before and after the event.
 182 Though these cuts strongly reduce the number of “candidate particle-like events”, we can see
 183 leakage into the “particle domain” [28]. A more detailed analysis with an exact replication of
 184 DAMA-LIBRA algorithms is required to quantitatively characterize this leakage under different
 185 conditions.

186 We have demonstrated (see Fig.1) that exposure to red light can strongly suppress delayed
 187 luminescence signals. Delayed luminescence intensity and decay time are dependent on the
 188 type of energetic particles see also [31]; paper [32] demonstrates that the decay time of de-
 189 layed luminescence after exposure to ^{60}Co strongly depends on temperature. This suggests
 190 that other environmental factors, including pressure, electric and magnetic fields, mechanical
 191 stress, changes in the microwave or RF backgrounds, or vibrations level also can affect delayed
 192 and, likely, fast luminescence responses.

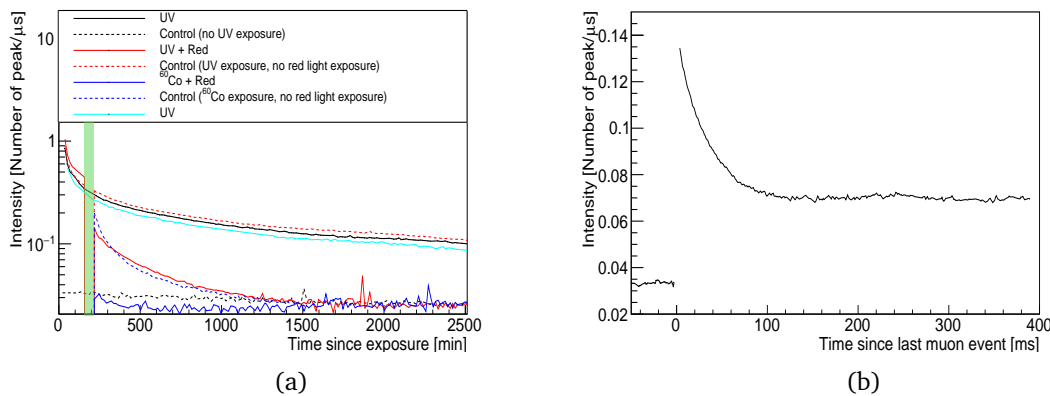


Figure 1: The delayed light intensity in NaI(Tl) [28] was monitored over time following UV exposure (a, solid black line) and Co-60 irradiation (a, dashed blue line). Three hours after the UV exposure, the crystal was exposed to red light (a, solid red line); and a pronounced decrease in the afterglow intensity was observed. The shaded green box corresponds to the red light irradiation time. Control runs were performed, in which exposure with the UV or red light sources was omitted, but the same procedure was used for source placement as in the runs with exposure. This check confirmed that the experimental procedure had a negligible contribution to the observed trend (a, dashed lines). We also observed delayed light following large energy depositions in the crystal (b). Note that we omit the data point at the zero time, which is the time of the large ionization event (b).

193 Unfortunately, DAMA-LIBRA and other experiments trying to check /replicate observed
 194 yearly modulation in the rate of particle-like low-energy events are not collecting information
 195 about the intensity of random background photon emission. Depth of modulation (if present)
 196 and the relative phases to modulations of muon flux, solar neutrino flux, and the DAMA-LIBRA
 197 background oscillations would be of interest. In-phase variation of random photon emission
 198 with the DAMA-LIBRA oscillations could indicate the presence of a single environmental factor
 199 affecting both signals. Low-energy Solar neutrino and/or low-mass dark matter particles can
 200 have insufficient energy to produce luminescence photons. Still, it can produce hot phonons

201 with energies sufficient to trigger the release of stored energy (A.K Drukier even suggested de-
202 tection on low-energy nuclear recoils based on the release of energy stored in micro-explosives
203 [33]), so analysis of modulations can be complex.

204 6 Phenomenology comparison

205 Low-temperature solid-state detectors use different single-crystal sensors like Si, Ge, SiO₂,
206 CaWO₄, Zn, etc., cooled to 10-50 mK temperatures.

207 Microscopic mechanisms of small inelastic deformation (flow) of single-crystal samples
208 were extensively studied (especially Si and Ge) at room temperatures under different load con-
209 ditions, including inhomogeneous loading and micro-indentations, see, for example, [34,35].
210 The flow demonstrates small steps consisting of transformations in microscopic volumes of
211 material. These transformations are changes in crystallographic structure, chemical transfor-
212 mations, the appearance of the twin boundaries, sliding plains, appearance, and the motion
213 of dislocations. These transformations are dissipative events and should result in heat and
214 hot phonon productions. It is also known that the appearance and motion of defects, disloca-
215 tions, etc., in dielectrics, semiconductors, and metal samples can be accompanied by photon
216 emission and electrons from the surface of the sample [36,37]. These relaxation processes
217 can continue after the force that causes deformation is removed. This has a strong similar-
218 ity with relaxation processes in glasses. Importantly, the long relaxation process in glasses
219 can be caused not only by inelastic deformation (flow) but by other, more “gentle” actions.
220 An example is level-burning experiments on glass optical filters at low temperatures [38 level
221 burning]; here laser pulse is producing a notch transparency window in a glass optical filter,
222 and longtime observation (year) of increasing absorption in this notch transparency window
223 at low temperatures was required to demonstrate not exponential but polynomial relaxation
224 time dependence. The non-interacting TLS model predicts that relaxation is exponential

225 We know that energy accumulates in solids during exposure to ionizing radiation- and we
226 have effects of thermally stimulated luminescence, electron emission from the surface, and
227 thermally stimulated conductivity in irradiated samples. Releases of stored energy due to
228 thermal activation at ambient temperature and due to tunneling should also lead to delayed
229 luminescence, surface electron emission, and production of current carriers, or quasiparticles.
230 We see this as delayed luminescence in NaI(Tl). Relative numbers of different energy-bearing
231 states produced by inelastic deformation, (thermomechanical stress), or by specific types of
232 ionizing radiation will differ. On the other hand, there are energy transfer processes between
233 different energy-storing states and configurations, states bearing excessive energy and states
234 responsible for photon and electron emission, and quasiparticle production. We observed that
235 exposure to a red light suppresses both TSL and delayed luminescence, which indicates that
236 states responsible for the energy storage in both cases are identical or have many similarities.

237 The intensity of TSL and TSEE in Xe crystal can decrease in order of magnitude when the
238 crystal is annealed before irradiation [39]. One can expect similar effects of defects on TSL,
239 TSEE, and on delayed luminescence, electron, and quasiparticle emission in other materials.

240 Authors of [3] introduce the term “micro fracturing” to explain the increase in particle-like
241 events and quasiparticle production with increased three-mechanical stress in low-temperature
242 solid-state detectors. We can state this differently: relaxation of mechanical stress includes
243 step-like small transformation at room temperature and at low (10-50 mK) temperature.

244 The next questions are if relaxation processes can still contain step-like transitions in two
245 limiting cases. One case is when the stored energy is decreasing, and the system is nearing an
246 equilibrium state. To some extent, this is equivalent to a small number of defects produced by
247 ionizing radiation or by UV light. The other case is lower temperatures and the presence of

248 low-energy “excitations” - as mentioned above, many systems in materials demonstrate glass-
249 like properties at low temperatures. Our tentative answers are “yes” in both cases. These
250 answers follow Prigogine’s ideas and SOC theory. It could be possible to check these predictions
251 experimentally.

252 One possibility is to check for photon bunching in NaI(Tl) delayed luminescence after ex-
253 posure to UV light when the material is closing to the equilibrium- (low luminescence) state,
254 we have discussed this above. In low-temperature solid-state detectors, one can look for de-
255 layed signals appearing after exposure to ionizing radiation. We predict that relaxation can
256 have features similar to relaxation after mechanical stress, i.e., bursts of photon, phonon, and
257 quasiparticle emission could be present. These experiments are better to try on samples with
258 low thermo-mechanical stress after long storage at low temperatures in a low radioactivity un-
259 derground laboratory. Low-temperature experiments with NaI(Tl) where both luminescence
260 and temperature spikes are recorded are of high interest as they could demonstrate an absence
261 of keV scale heat production when photon emission bursts are detected.

262 7 Testing for SOC-like dynamics in superconducting devices

263 Superconducting nanowire single photon detector (SNSPD) is a new rapidly developing IR
264 photon sensors technology demonstrating in comparison with other superconducting photon
265 sensors technologies the fastest photon counting rate, lowest dark counts, along with high en-
266 ergy sensitivity. Absorption of an IR photon in a superconducting nanowire carrying small DC
267 results in breaking superconductivity in a small section of the nanowire and heat production
268 in this normal section by the applied current. The normal section of the nanowire wire starts
269 to grow, and a voltage peak appears across the nanowire. Importantly, there is no energy dis-
270 sipation inside the superconducting nanowire by the small readout current while the detector
271 is waiting for a photon, and thermo-mechanical stress energy is small and likely relaxation
272 time after cooling down is fast coming to stop for thin (several nm) and narrow nanowire.
273 This means that energy pumping into nanowire and substrate vanishes when this detector is
274 waiting for a photon arrival, so SOC-like dynamic should be suppressed in these devices (we
275 discussed this idea in [40]). The low dark count rate allows us to look for SOC-like dynamics
276 and effective energy up-conversion effects in these devices: one can expose the SNSPD to a
277 low-intensity flux of microwave photons with photon energy below the superconducting gap
278 in the nanowire. Then photons cannot break Cooper pairs in nanowires and can only pro-
279 duce low-energy excitations in a substrate or sub-gap excitations in the superconductor. An
280 increase in the dark counts would indicate energy up-conversion-like events in the device, and
281 observation of dark count dependence on the frequency of microwave radiation can provide
282 some spectroscopy of low-energy states in the device materials which are involved in SOC-like
283 dynamics. One can change electron concentration in a nanowire by applying an electric field
284 perpendicular to the substrate, and this will affect the superconducting transition temperature
285 and critical current. By lowering the temperature and critical current simultaneously, one can
286 try to increase the energy sensitivity of SNSPD. This also will make tests for SOC-like dynam-
287 ics more sensitive. Photon detection at longer wavelengths is interesting for space microwave
288 astronomy and searches for axions.

289 8 Discussion

290 We compared properties of excess low-energy backgrounds in dark matter detectors, relaxation
291 processes in glasses, and Prigogine’s ideas about systems with energy flow. We came to the

292 hypothesis that processes of energy accumulation by “interacting excitations” in materials and
293 releases of this stored energy can be present in all detectors and cause events of burst-like
294 emission of photons, phonons, or quasiparticles, emission of surface electrons, etc. At the same
295 time, our current knowledge of these processes and internal interactions are insufficient for
296 model-independent dark matter searches: we may not be able to exclude beyond a reasonable
297 doubt these processes as an explanation for observed low-energy events in our detectors.

298 In other words, a slight shift of paradigm is required. In addition to nuclear and particle
299 physics effects that produce the dominant part of backgrounds in dark matter particle searches,
300 we need to pay attention also to possible non-equilibrium thermodynamic effects. Our intuitive
301 expectations based on equilibrium thermodynamics are not working well here: we are custom
302 to energy transfer cascades from high-energy excitations to low-energy excitations, but here
303 we can find, though not so often, cascades producing large energy events or excitations from
304 small energy excitations.

305 Though we are away from ab initio calculations/modeling of dynamics for complex systems
306 away from thermal equilibrium, we can expect to find new effects based on the comparison of
307 phenomenology we see in different systems. Looking for these new effects will help to build
308 more accurate phenomenological models and chart boundaries where simplified models can
309 work. A correct understanding of material processes should help to select better materials and
310 readout techniques to improve detectors’ sensitivity for elastic coherent neutrino scattering
311 and dark matter particles, or/and improve restrictions that direct detection experiments put
312 on dark matter particle models.

313 Our general conclusion is that searches for low-energy interactions with neutrinos or hy-
314 pothetical dark matter particles could be more efficient if we also acquire and analyze data on
315 energy accumulation and release effects in materials and devices. Studies of non-equilibrium
316 thermodynamics effects using tools of particle physics, condensed matter, and QI techniques
317 would benefit all these disciplines. This invites wider collaboration between HEP and con-
318 densed matter scientists, and we argue that joint research programs between funding agencies
319 (like HEP and BES divisions of the DOE) are required.

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